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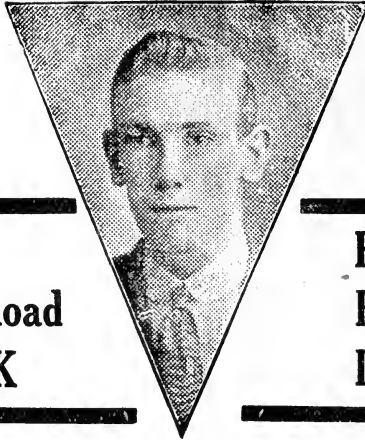
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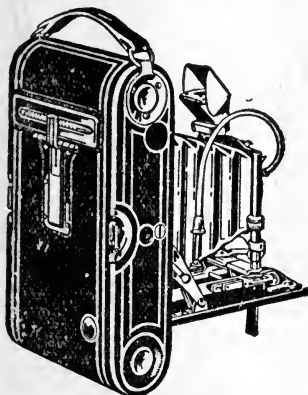
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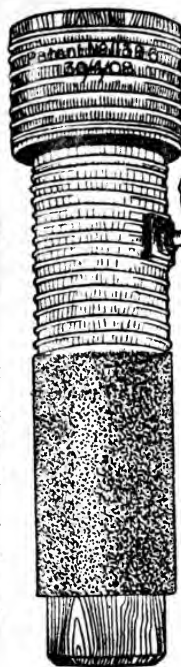
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—AND OTHERS.

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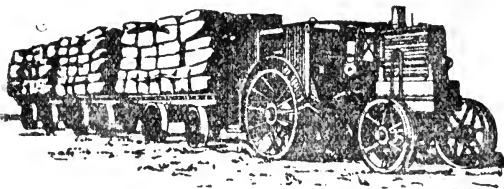
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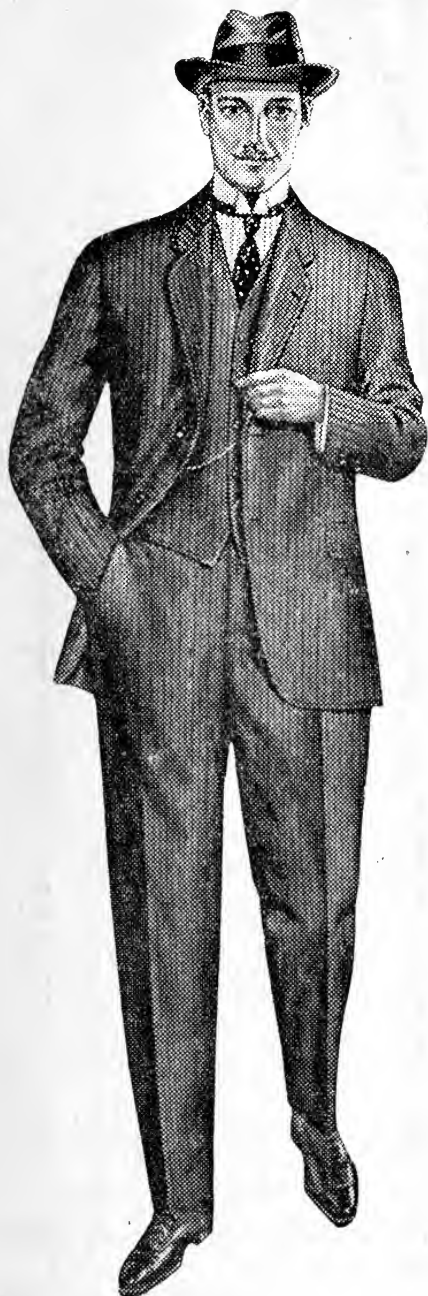


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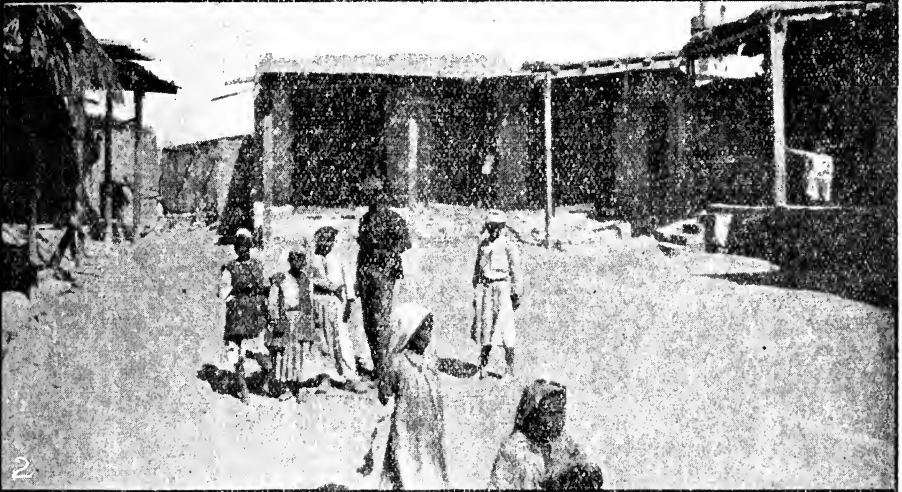
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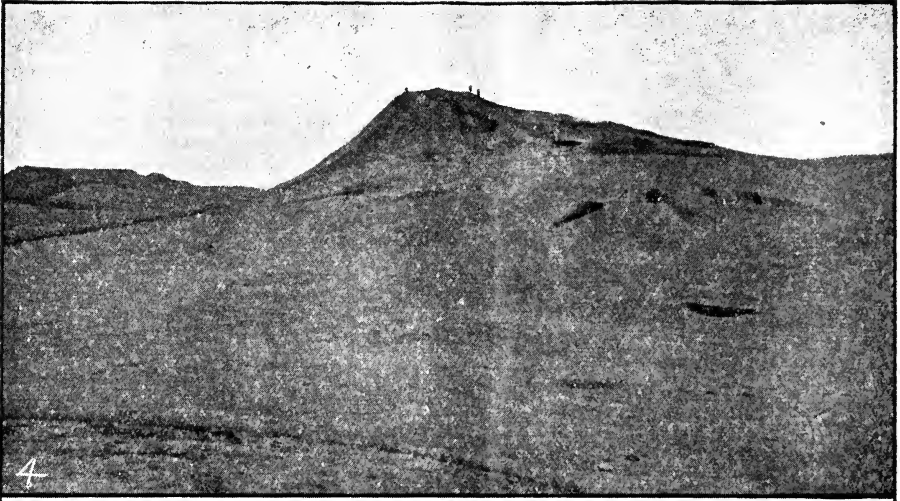
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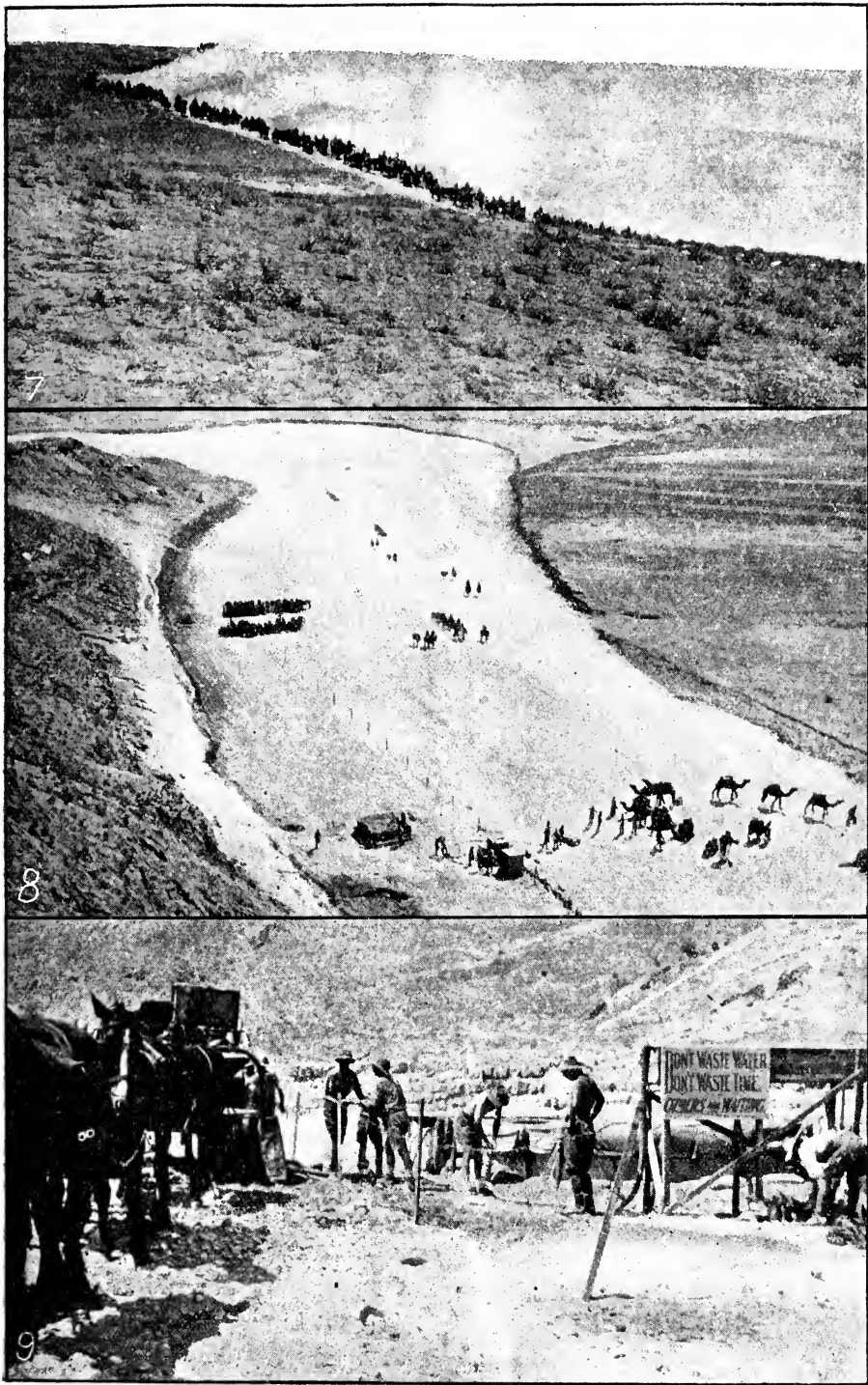
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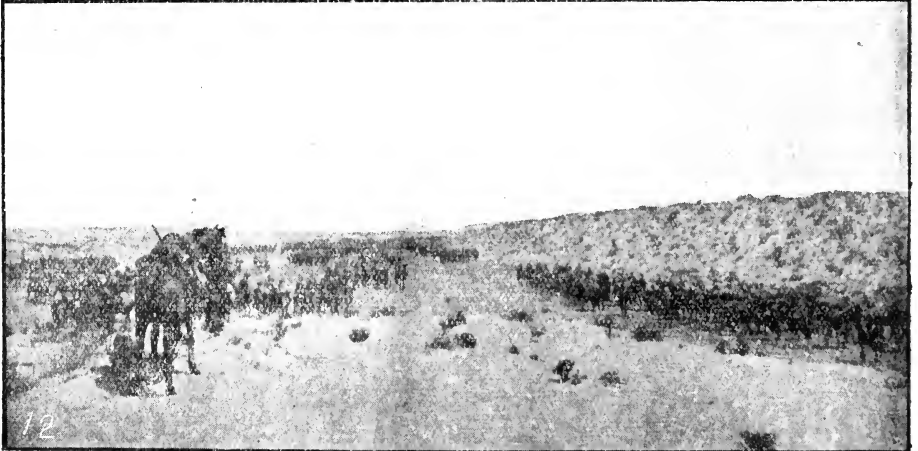
1. Group on top of Mt. Meredith, a typical razor-back hill of the desert.
2. In the town of El-Arish.
3. A halt on the sea-shore.



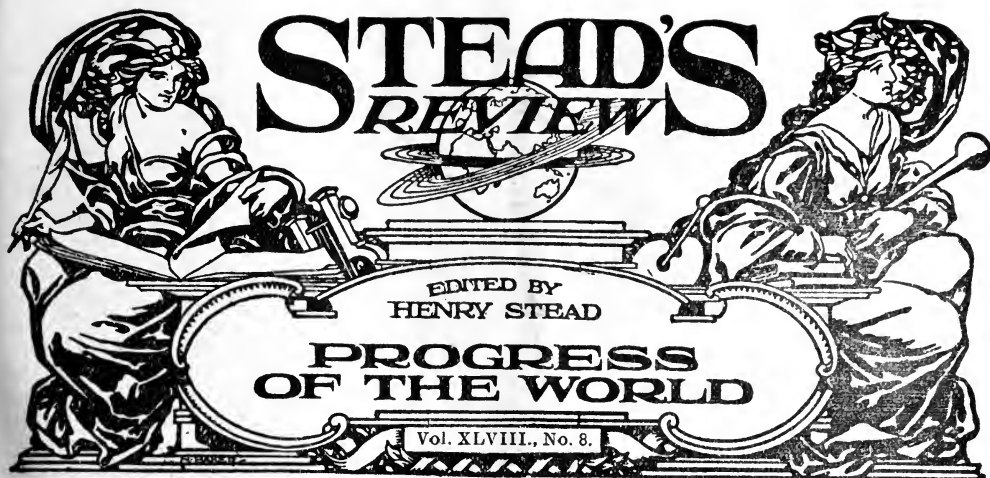
4. Hill on the top of which the mozaic was found. Note the Turkish trenches on the right.
5. View of a portion of the floor of the chapel, showing method by which it was lifted.
6. The stone with the Greek inscription underneath which the skeleton was found. See p. 420.



7. Light-horsemen crossing Wadi at Gozmabrook.
8. View of the Wadi bed. 9. Watering at one of the wells.



10. Laying railway line across the desert.
11. Horses watering. Note box lining of well.
12. Brigade crossing a sal. pan during the advance.



OCTOBER 6. 1917.

The Rising Wind of Peace.*

In our last issue I asked whether peace was near, and indicated why in my opinion I thought it was approaching. Since then various notable statesmen at home have roundly declared that there can be no peace at all until the enemy are soundly beaten, have asserted that Germany is beaten, and knows that she is beaten, that she is bleeding to death, and that there must be no talk of peace until she is hammered to her knees. In view of these emphatic announcements by men who ought to be thoroughly seized with the actual state of affairs, whose positions of high authority should not permit them to give voice to aspirations and hopes not entirely warranted by the facts, I ought perhaps to abandon all hope of a speedy settlement, and, like Mr. Taft and other prominent men, resign myself to waiting for the conclusion of the struggle until such time as the Americans can throw in their whole weight, which, says the ex-President, cannot be for a long time. But whilst I give due weight to the utterances of General Smuts, Mr. Churchill, Mr. Asquith, Mr.

Lloyd George, General Maurice and others, I am more convinced than ever that the end of hostilities is near, and watch eagerly for those straws which indicate the rising wind of peace which will soon be blowing in Europe. There is a notable difference in the utterances of responsible men to-day and those they gave expression to a year ago. We are fighting now for the future peace of the world, and that can only be secured, we are told, by the abolition of Prussian militarism. But there is increasing realisation that only by giving the German people a greater share in the government of their country can Prussian militarism be curbed, and there is a notable expression of opinion that President Wilson struck the right note in his reply to the Pope.

Mr. Asquith's New Attitude.

Mr. Asquith made far the most important statement of all. General Smuts' declarations smack too much of those which we used to hear in the early days of the war, and we remember that he is but a recent arrival on the scene of European politics. Mr. Churchill, after a long absence, has just returned to office, and expresses himself much as he did formerly. General Maurice is a soldier, and is concerned almost entirely with the great achievements of our

*I must apologise to my readers for the lack of consecutive argument and the paucity of particulars in the following summary of the reasons which convince me that the end of the war is near.

army in the west. Mr. Asquith, however, whatever his faults, is admittedly one of the clearest-eyed statesmen in England. He has again and again voiced the feelings of the Allies, and though no longer in office he is still a power in the land—a more level-headed, experienced man than the present Prime Minister. As the head of the British people he made certain definite statements, and in his present pronouncements he naturally is obliged to hear them in mind, consequently, though actually he gives a very moderate view of our war aims, he steps down very carefully from his old platform, and his last speech has to be very diligently studied to appreciate how far he has travelled since he declared that until those responsible for the deaths of Nurse Cavell and Captain Fryett had been punished there was to be no thought of negotiations between the belligerents. He complains in the first place that Germany in her reply to the Pope said nothing at all about evacuating Belgium and the north of France. A definite reply about these things would, he said, be worth a whole column of pious platitudes.

Restore Belgium and Northern France.

Apparently, if Germany would say that she was prepared to give up Belgium and the French territory she now holds, and restore Alsace-Lorraine, Mr. Asquith would be willing to open negotiations, provided he had reasonable certainty that the German people would in future have more control of their own Government. The Reichstag, let us not forget, definitely committed Germany to the policy of "no annexations and no indemnities." Therefore, there should be no question that Germany will restore Belgium and Northern France. I have dealt with the possibility of Alsace-Lorraine settlement in previous numbers. We may take it for granted, I think, that the three first conditions Mr. Asquith lays down would be met—may possibly already have been met. Left is the stipulation concerning the democratisation of the enemy Government.

Democratise Prussia.

When we get right down to it, what the Allies want to democratise is not Germany but Prussia. The Reichstag is more democratically elected than the House of Commons, but it is dominated by the *Bundesrath*, which in turn is controlled by Prussia. Once give the Prussians a proper share in the government of the kingdom of Prussia,

and the whole German system of government for the Empire is affected. We have a happy conviction that the English people really do decide such a momentous question, but actually, as I have shown, until they can compel their rulers to submit treaties to Parliament before signing them, and can have a direct voice in all international negotiations, they may be suddenly confronted with a *fait accompli*, in which they are in honour bound to acquiesce.

Can the Allies Still Refuse to Discuss Peace?

Of course, no matter what reforms the Kaiser promised, there are plenty of people who would regard them as utterly valueless. He would take the liberties he now grants under duress away again directly he had won peace, they declare. If the German people once get these things is it conceivable that they would tamely render them back again? Has not this war shown that they are a determined and stubborn folk, who hang with bulldog tenacity to whatever they have managed to grip? Supposing that the Pope's new note indicates that the Central Powers will evacuate Belgium and France, will arbitrate the Alsace-Lorraine question, meet Italy in her demands, and, at the same time, the Kaiser puts in force the promised reforms in Prussia, can the Allies still go on refusing to consider the possibility of opening peace negotiations?

What We Are Fighting For.

Winston Churchill insists that Germany must be utterly beaten, otherwise the Germans would not lose faith in their present system of government, and he would therefore go on fighting until, some time in 1918, American armies enabled us to smash the whole might of Germany concentrated in the west. President Wilson is far the wiser statesman. With the German people, he says, America is not at war. Let them democratise their Government, get rid, not of the Hohenzollerns, but of Hohenzollernism, and we will make peace. That the Pope is working hard to bring the struggle to an end is sure. I do not think his efforts will fail.

The "Germany Must Be Punished" Argument."

The most general argument against a negotiated peace is that it would merely be the prelude to a still more bitter war. With that matter I dealt in our last issue. But there is also a notable demand that the war should be continued, even if a favourable

peace could be negotiated, on the ground that, as Germany began the war, she must be properly punished for the crime and taught such a lesson that never again would she venture to break the peace of Europe. As this view is very generally held, importance will be attached to the disclosures of the exact dates on which Austria, Russia, and Germany mobilised their armies. It is admitted in all the official reports of British Ambassadors that if Russia ordered a complete mobilisation it meant war—inevitable war—for German diplomatists had again and again stated that “if Russia mobilised, Germany would not be content with mere mobilisation or give time to Russia to carry out hers, but would probably declare war at once.” This sentence is quoted from the British Ambassador’s statement to the Russian Foreign Minister in Petrograd on July 25th. Whether Germany was justified in regarding a Russian mobilisation order as tantamount to a declaration of war is, of course, another matter. She did so regard it, however. The question as to which country really mobilised first will no doubt be finally cleared up when the evidence in the recent trial of the Russian Minister of War, General Sulhmanikoff, is made public.

Great British Success in West.

The brilliant success which was gained by the British army east of Ypres has been steadily pushed home, and Sir Douglas Haig now announces that “one of the greatest victories of the war” has been won in this sector. The main ridges overlooking the Roulers-Menin road were captured, and the enemy was driven back for over a thousand yards on a nine mile front. This great success to some extent justifies General Smuts and General Maurice in their optimistic forecasts of coming German defeat and Allied victory, but prophets must take notice of the entire position, must give due weight to the Russian situation, to the Italian and French as well as to the British campaigns. The victories in Flanders are in large measure due to the fact that in men and guns we at present outnumber the enemy. I dealt last time with the probable result which would follow this drive north of Lille. That result is brought nearer of attainment by the victory reported yesterday. It is good indeed to learn that, notable as has been the advance, our losses in winning this new ground were comparatively small, thanks to the terrific artillery fire the British leader was able to concentrate on the objectives he had in view.

News from General Maude.

The long silence in Mesopotamia has been broken, and broken in most satisfactory manner. General Maude reports that on September 28th the Anglo-Indian forces under his command attacked and captured a large Turkish garrison on Ramadi, a village on the Euphrates, some 65 miles due west of Bagdad. The action has been hailed as the greatest battle in Mesopotamia, but that of course it is not. It can hardly, in fact, be regarded as anything more than a surprise attack on a small Turkish force, but, viewed in its proper perspective, the whole affair was obviously a well-planned and well-carried-out operation, which reflects much credit on those who arranged and executed it, and augurs well for the winter campaign which is anticipated. The brief cables do not indicate whether the Turks at Ramadi were the advance guard of an enemy army marching towards Bagdad or whether they were a garrison left by the enemy as they retreated along the Euphrates before the advancing British. Everything depends upon what they were. If an advance guard, further fighting is certain, heavy fighting, too, as the Turks would not attempt to reach Bagdad unless strong in numbers and artillery. If a rearguard, we may anticipate further British advance up the river, an advance which for some time would encounter no great resistance. In view of the constant reports concerning the concentration of Turkish troops under von Falkenhayn in Syria, and the assertions that an enemy effort to recover Bagdad was to be made in the winter the advance guard theory would seem to be most likely. Additional probability is given this view because of the close proximity of Ramadi to Bagdad. It would certainly seem unlikely that General Maude would have allowed the Turks to remain in possession of a jumping-off-place at the very point where the twin rivers approach each other most nearly.

The Action at Ramadi.

On the other hand, if the enemy army is really on the move it would hardly push a small force ahead of it without making its line of retreat secure, and we do know that a British force has been slowly clearing the country between the Tigris and the Euphrates with the object of making it impossible for the Turks to cut Bagdad’s communications with the sea. The capture of Ramadi may signal the arrival of this force, which to reach the place would have

had to drive all the Turkish garrisons before it up the Euphrates. Although either contention may be right I incline to the rearguard idea, because I can hardly imagine von Falkenhayn thrusting a comparatively small body of men forward without arranging for their adequate support. The actual operation of surrounding the Turks at Ramadi was very cleverly carried out, and the element of surprise well preserved. First the infantry captured a post on the left, that is the Bagdad, side of the river, which they then crossed. Meanwhile the cavalry swung right round the village, and approached it from the west, the desert side. In this way the Turks were surrounded, and, after desperate efforts to break a way through on the west, surrendered. The official report places the captures at 3310 Turks, 190 of whom were wounded, thirteen cannon and twelve machine guns. Two hundred dead Turks were buried.

The Bagdad Communications Now Secure.

If it is correct to assume that the Ramadi garrison had been driven north as the British advanced along the Euphrates we may expect to hear news of our occupation of Hit, an important town on the river, any day. From this place, which is 25 miles higher up the Euphrates than Ramadi, the main caravan routes to Syria start. If on the other hand the captured Turks are an advance guard we may anticipate severe fighting at Tekrit, on the Tigris, 110 miles north of Bagdad, as well as about Hit. The former place is in our possession, and lies on the route of the famous Bagdad railway. By this time the Germans will have completed the link from Mosul to Ras-el-Ain, and can therefore concentrate Turkish armies more easily between Mosul and Tekrit than they could at Hit. To reach that place they would have to rely upon the Euphrates river-bed and valley, and although the river is now rapidly falling, it is not at its lowest until next month. The stream itself is of little use for transport purposes, being too shallow and too much interrupted by dams and rocks to allow the easy passage of boats. If the transport difficulty could be overcome von Falkenhayn would naturally prefer to strike at Bagdad from a place like Ramali, or somewhere even further south, but the difficulty is a very real one, and would probably prevent his so doing. The most cheering thing about the brilliant little achievement at Ramadi is that it shows

General Maude has cleared the enemy from the Euphrates between that place and Basra, and has, therefore, made his communications between Bagdad and the Persian Gulf quite secure.

The Russian Situation.

The situation in Russia remains confused, but there are as yet no indications whatever which justify Allied statesmen in declaring that ere long Russia will "come again." As I have asserted ever since the outbreak of the revolution, we have no ground for anticipating that Russian armies will seriously menace Germany again. To reorganise the 180,000,000 people of diverse races and widely different ideals who constitute what we call Russia demands years, not weeks or months. It is impossible to untangle the inextricable confusion on the railways by proclamation, or to feed armies with promises. Sporadic offensives here and there they may be, but I reiterate my conviction that the very best we can hope from the Russians is that they will prevent supplies going through to the Central Empires. Perhaps the most significant commentary on the Russian situation was the action of the French in refusing to vote credits for the purchase of war material for the Muscovite armies on the ground that it was improbable that weapons would ever reach Russia or be used if they did. Meanwhile the first definite indication of a break-up of Russia comes in the reports concerning the doings of General Kaledine, the Cossack leader. His arrest was ordered by M. Kerensky, but no one was strong enough to carry out the instruction of the Prime Minister. Kaledine, in high dudgeon, retired to the Ukraine, and appears to have gathered a large Cossack army round him in the Don district. He has been elected superior Ataman, which, so cables say, makes him the recognised leader of the Little Russians.

A Little Russian Republic?

On another page I review a most interesting article by Mr. Stoddart on the Ukrainian question, and although perhaps he goes a little too far in emphasising the differences between Little and Great Russians, he shows clearly enough that the creation of an independent Ukrainian State is by no means improbable. If, for instance, Austria, in order to secure the splitting off of all Southern Russia, were to offer the Ukrainians Bukowina and Eastern Galicia as a bribe, the temptation to thus consoli-

date the race and unite Ruthenians and Little Russians again under the same government—which would enable them to once more teach their own language in their schools and develop their own national culture—might be too great to resist. If General Kaledine, who has evidently a powerful army at his back, does found an independent Ukrainian state, the Allies could hardly protest, for he would but be vindicating the right of the people to decide how and by whom they should be governed. This is one of the war aims of the Allies. It should be noted in passing that some of the greatest wheat producing areas in Russia are to be found in the Ukraine.

Kerensky Likely to Go.

The Democratic Conference is sitting at Petrograd, and is daily disclosing the hopelessness of the present situation. M. Kerensky, by an impassioned appeal, managed to induce the assembly to approve of the Coalition Government, but that approval was later withdrawn, and, at the moment, extremists have control. They assert, probably with truth, that the Cadets and less radical parties actually supported General Korniloff in his attempt to seize control, and refuse therefore to allow these more conservative elements to have any share whatever in the government of the country. If the split between the extremists and the moderates widens, it is difficult to see how civil strife can be avoided. It would not be at all surprising to hear any day that M. Kerensky was no longer Prime Minister, and that advantage was being taken of the differences between the revolutionists to re-establish the Tsardom. Such efforts would I think certainly fail, but all this internal strife makes certain that no military assistance can be hoped for from Russia. That the Germans are satisfied that domestic differences will keep Russia out of the fight is indicated by their inactivity on the eastern front. Despite the announced lack of discipline in the Russian navy enemy ships have made no attempt whatever to force their way to Petrograd. Nor has the German army attempted any serious advance since it occupied Riga. The enemy leaders are playing a watching game, and are evidently quite satisfied to allow the Russian situation to develop without any interference from them.

6,000,000 Tons a Year Needed.

During the last few days some light has been thrown on the submarine campaign and the shipping situation generally. The

Ministry of Munitions has officially declared that "the shipping losses since the 1st of February roughly equal the total loss of the war period before that date," and goes on to say that Allied and American shipbuilding yards will have to turn out 6,000,000 tons annually to replace losses. It also asserts that "Germany is not sinking more than 5,000,000 tons of steel ships annually." Lord Robert Cecil, Minister of Blockade, says: "With America's help in shipping construction we will be able to beat the U-boats." Now that we have these few particulars we can get some general idea of the present situation. We have to bear in mind that, although the British, French and Italian authorities give meagre information concerning the weekly sinkings, no details whatever are given of the neutral shipping sunk, but from time to time general statements are made which indicate clearly enough that many neutral ships are being sent to the bottom. Every vessel torpedoed by a U-boat reduces the world's carrying capacity, adds to the difficulty of keeping the Allies supplied with the necessities of life and of war.

Speeding Up Shipbuilding.

We know with a fair degree of accuracy the tonnage losses inflicted on the world's mercantile marine by the enemy up to February 1st, 1917. Until then full particulars of losses were published not only by the belligerents, but by neutrals as well. Taken all together, the losses work out at 5,000,000 tons. Roughly, says the Ministry of Munitions, the losses from February 1st to September 30th were 5,000,000 tons, or an average of 620,000 tons a month. Viscount Grey stated last February that the British tonnage sunk during the first 18 days of that month was 304,000 tons. It was estimated that by the end of that month, including all ships, neutral as well as Allied, the losses reached nearly 700,000 tons. The French Admiral Bienamie asserts that the losses for April were 700,000 tons, and for March they were probably somewhat higher. Since April there has been a happy decline in sinkings, so that an average of 620,000 for the eight months works out all right, but the present monthly loss must be far less than that. The British authorities anticipate a loss of 6,000,000 tons during the next twelve months, and call on the shipyards to make that good. Let us see what progress has been made towards this goal. In

1913 the yards of the United Kingdom turned out 1,977,573 tons, and in 1914, in spite of five months of war, 1,722,154 tons. During 1915, however, only 649,336 tons took the water, and in 1916 the total launchings dropped to 582,305 tons. Not all the ships launched were completed for sea, so that the actual tonnage turned out was probably under 500,000.

A 50 per cent. Increase in British Yards.

Mr. Lloyd George stated recently that "this year we shall turn out four times as many ships as we did last year. In the last two months of this year we shall turn out . . . as many ships as we turned out during the whole of the 12 months of last year." This means that during 1917 2,000,000 tons of new shipping will have been completed. Included in this are, it is understood, the tonnage added to British register by purchase abroad, the ships specially built for the Government in America, Japan and Canada, and certain German ships recently handed over to Britain by the American Government. The Prime Minister further forecasted that he expects the British output for the year 1918 to be six times the output of 1916—again he includes vessels building for the Government in foreign yards. As the 1916 output was half-a-million tons, it follows that he expects our mercantile marine to be increased by 3,000,000 tons during next year. To replace anticipated losses, however, American and other yards will have to turn out another 3,000,000 tons, and we have no real data to go upon which would enable us to judge whether they are likely to be able to do this or not. We are assured that builders in the United States expect to produce at least 4,000,000 tons of shipping during the two years 1917 and 1918. If they are able to do that, then Japan, Canada, France, Italy and Scandinavia will have to produce 1,000,000 tons annually between them. It is, however, at least open to doubt whether the United States can produce those 4,000,000 tons.

An American Increase of 600 per cent. Required.

In 1914 200,762 tons were built there. In 1915, 177,460, but in 1916 the total had jumped to 531,000 tons. Many of the vessels built during that year, and during 1917 were for Great Britain and for neutrals. This year it is confidently asserted that 1,400,000 tons will be turned out, but that estimate was made on the assumption that

General Goethals would at once get to work on his ambitious shipbuilding programme. The unfortunate squabble between him and the Chairman of the Shipping Board delayed this, and, as indicated in a recent number, instead of placing orders for a thousand wooden ships, the building of only 88 has been contracted for. It takes some time to build ships, even standardised ships, and whilst giving the Americans all credit for great energy and resource, one cannot but find it difficult to anticipate the production of a tonnage six times greater than has ever been turned out from American yards in twelve months before. England, we must remember, had reached the 2,000,000 mark before the war, and only expects to add 1,000,000 to this total—and part of that, too, with the help of Japan and Canada. That is to say, we hope to be able to increase our output by 50 per cent., but expect the Americans to increase theirs by 600 per cent. ! When we turn to Japan we find that in 1914 she built 85,861 tons, and in 1915 produced 49,408 tons. It is understood that she has largely increased her output during the last two years, but it is unlikely that she has passed the 150,000 mark yet.

Little Help from Neutral Yards.

In 1914, France built 114,052 tons, and in 1915, only 25,402 tons. There have been many complaints from French sources that the Government was doing nothing to encourage shipbuilding since the war began, and that practically no merchant ships were being turned out of French yards. Recently, however, it has been officially stated that, by building and purchase, France has managed to maintain her mercantile marine at the same strength as before the war—viz., 2,000,000 tons. France's utmost production, though, is hardly likely to exceed 100,000 tons in 1917, if, indeed, it reaches that figure. Holland builds about 115,000 tons annually, Norway about 60,000 tons, and Denmark 40,000 tons. As, however, these three neutrals have to import a large part of the materials they need for building their ships, and such imports are now denied them, we may reasonably assume that the 200,000 tons they might have made available, will not be forthcoming at all. Italy in, pre-war days built at most 40,000 tons a year, and the difficulty of getting coal and other necessities will certainly militate against the continued turning out of this amount of ton-

nage. Since February 1st, 1917, the French losses appear to have averaged about three ships a week, roughly 150 a year. Before the war France only built between 30 and 40 ships annually. When we eliminate the neutrals, reckon that the Canadian ships are included in the British total, and allow for the difficulty of shipbuilding in France and Italy, we find finally that Japan and America between them will have to produce 3,000,000 tons during the next twelve months if the hopes of the Minister of Munitions are to be realised. Japan, in 1914, as we have seen, built 85,000 tons, and America in 1916 produced 500,000. Fortunately, though, fewer ships are now being sunk than was anticipated, and the losses to be replaced may fall far below 6,000,000 tons during the next 12 months.

"Alas! the Poor Neutrals."

The lot of the neutrals has been an exceedingly hard one ever since the war began. It is apparently to become more tragic still, for Great Britain and the United States have prohibited all exports to them. This action seems to have been taken on the ground that only in this way was it possible to prevent supplies percolating through to Germany. Before America entered the war, President Wilson, insisted that the exports of the United States to neutral countries had not increased since the struggle began. In Holland the export and import trade of the country is entirely controlled by a Trust, which was organised and started by a member of the British Embassy at The Hague. Denmark, too, has very binding agreements with the Allies concerning exports to Germany, and the control of imports into Sweden and Norway is absolutely in the hands of the British navy, which examines every ship destined for neutral ports. It must be remembered, too, that England does not produce enough butter, cheese, bacon or eggs for the needs of the people, and is perforce obliged to import these things. She draws them very largely from Denmark, Holland, Norway and Sweden. True, they are produced in great quantities in the Dominions, especially in Australia and New Zealand, but nevertheless England must at present go to the neutral countries for these necessities of life, and the neutrals cannot produce them without in turn getting necessities from abroad. When we recall all these things we cannot but come to the conclusion that the announced embargo is not really going to greatly curtail exports

from England and America to the Scandinavian countries and Holland. Rather does the announcement mark a difference in method than an embargo. Formerly all exports were permitted save those which appeared on a very long list of prohibited articles. Now nothing may be exported save those on a list of permitted articles. For the sake of the neutrals, and for the sake of the British people, too, let us hope that the permits will be numerous enough to enable the neutral nations to exist and continue supplying England with what she so imperatively needs. Winter is coming on, and the sufferings in those northern countries will be terrible, but not worse, let us hope, than they were in the winter of 1916-17.

Air Reprisals.

The systematic German air raids on London have at last stirred the British Government up, and have induced the authorities to decide on reprisals. Reprisals in war are, as a rule, not successful in their objects. This has been shown again and again. Then it so often happens that action is wrongly reported to have been taken by one side which is regarded by the other as unjustified, but which induces it to get busy and hit back. A noted French General is reported to have said, after the Franco-German war that nearly all the so-called reprisals were carried out because of alleged doings of the enemy which had not really taken place. The recent Red Cross Conference, realising this danger, asked that no reprisals on prisoners of war should be taken without due notification as to why they were being resorted to, so that it would be possible to ascertain whether they were actually justified. French and British aeroplanes have long been consistently raiding German towns behind the lines, seeking out munition dumps and other military objects. The Germans undoubtedly will assert that their raids on London and other British and French towns have also as object the destruction of military stores, but it should be possible to differentiate in some way between places immediately behind the fighting fronts and towns situated far distant therefrom, and to let the enemy definitely understand that promiscuous bomb dropping on great centres of population would be punished by the dropping of bombs on similar centres in Germany. I have always maintained that whilst reprisals were horrible, they were justified if they succeeded in their object,

but were not justified if they did not, for then such operations merely lead to further and more extensive horrors committed by both sides. If the object of reprisals be clearly stated, and they are resorted to only when absolutely justified, then there is hope of success following their institution. When the Germans, after due notice of their intention so to do, sank hospital ships in the blockaded area, we raided Freiburg; but we have not been told whether that definite reprisal for a definite enemy action achieved its object or not. Presumably it did, as we have heard of no further raids as punishment for the sinking of hospital ships. If the Freiburg lesson were taken to heart by the enemy, then there is hope that the dropping of bombs on defenceless German cities will achieve the result desired, and free London from unwelcome aerial visitors. If, however, it fails in its object, are we justified in tipping explosives on to thickly peopled German towns.

A Japanese Monroe Doctrine.

The titanic struggle in Europe so obsesses us, so compels our entire attention, that it is perhaps not surprising that the most important item of news which has reached Australia since last I wrote should have been passed by almost unnoticed—should not be deemed worthy of the distinction of a leading article! Yet the Japanese declaration concerning the future attitude of the Mikado towards China is undoubtedly one of the most epoch-making of the century. When, in 1823, President Monroe announced his famous "Doctrine," little significance appears to have been attached to it by the mighty European Powers which in those far-off days rather looked down on the little Republic which seemed to take itself a great deal more seriously than circumstances, in their opinion, warranted. Yet the Monroe Doctrine—suggested originally by the British statesman, Canning—has had immense influence in world politics. Some even hold that, had there been no such Doctrine, the present war would not have occurred, for Germany would have been able to find in South America that "place in the Sun" which was denied her in the Old World. Be that as it may, the United States, by warning all European Powers off the New World, prevented them from dividing up South America as they have divided up Africa, and were beginning to divide up all that was left of Asia which had escaped the domination of one or other of the western nations.

Japan Now Dominant in China.

The demand for new spheres of influence, new areas for development, was blocked in the New World. Africa was partitioned out, Persia was divided between Russia and Great Britain, Turkey was playing one Power against the other for her very life, and before the war had thus managed to avoid partition. In their land-hunger the Powers were greedily looking to China for satisfaction. Already they had secured various spheres of influence. Great Britain had got Hong Kong and its immediate hinterland, and secured Wei-hai-Wei as a counter to Russia's grab of Port Arthur and Germany's seizure of Kiauchau. France was firmly in possession of Tonkin, and all four Powers had wrung notable concessions from the Chinese Emperor. Then Japan came on the scene, and first annexed Korea, next captured Port Arthur, and replaced the Russians in Manchuria. Formosa became hers, and finally Kiauchau fell to the Mikado. When the Japanese took this place and secured all the German rights in China, I pointed out in these columns that we had frankly to recognise that henceforth Japan would be the dominant Power in China. This was quite obvious. Before the war the five Powers—Russia, Great Britain, France, Germany and Japan—were all about equally dominant in China; each, let us say, had a fifth share of the spoil. Thanks to the war Japan acquires Germany's share; has, that is to say, two-fifths to the other Powers' three-fifths. Russia has now renounced all desire for new territory, desires no longer to impose her rule over alien races. This means that the Russian check on Japan in Manchuria has been removed, and the Mikado has, to all intents and purposes, entered into the Chinese inheritance of the Tsar; has, in fact, acquired another fifth—three-fifths to the two-fifths of Great Britain and France.

The Open-Door Policy.

Shortly after possessing herself of the German stronghold of Kiauchau, Japan presented an ultimatum to the Chinese President, and obtained from him certain notable concessions, the chiefest being that all the German rights should be handed over to Japan, and that Japanese advisers should give the Chinese the benefit of their greater experience in trade, diplomacy and military matters. Other arrangements concluded greatly benefited Japanese trade in China. It was at this time that the American dis-

approval of the Japanese doings was loudly voiced. The Government at Washington some years ago declared its policy in China to be that of the "Open Door." That is to say, it insists that all the ports of China shall be free and open to all the traders of the world no matter what their nationality, and that even in those districts which are in the spheres of influence of other Powers the same freedom shall be allowed. Japan, however, in Korea, at Port Arthur, in Manchuria, was slowly closing the door, and ended by banging it shut. The Americans promptly protested, and the controversy was going on when the war began, and has continued since. This is one of the reasons which brought about rather strained relations between the Island Empire of the East and the great Republic of the West. It is particularly significant that the Japanese declaration of a Monroe Doctrine for China should be made in the United States. Viscount Ishii, who announced it, is the head of the Japanese mission to the United States, and spoke officially for the Mikado's Government. Obviously the object of making the matter public in America was to try and induce the Americans to enter into a sort of partnership with Japan in the matter, and apparently, judging by the cordial reception of the announcement, the Americans are delighted, and will help Japan nail up the notice—"Hands off"—above the celestial gateway.

How the Monroe Doctrine of America Originated.

The full text of the Japanese declaration has, of course, not been cabled here—it is apparently more important that we should be informed concerning the movements of this, that, and the other notable in Europe than that we should learn exactly in what terms Viscount Ishii set forth a policy which must have immense influence on future relations in the Pacific! All we know is that her representative declared that Japan would "defend the independence of China against any aggressor, and would not herself seek to assail the integrity or sovereignty of China. She would not seek aggrandisement, territory or despoliation, and would welcome fair and honest competition everywhere." Japan seeks to apply to to China the same Doctrine that the United States has for nearly a century applied to the New World. That being so, we can best understand the situation now foreshadowed by recalling to mind just what the Monroe Doctrine is. George Washing-

ton set, as a guiding principle of American policy, that the United States should avoid entangling herself in the politics of Europe. The Monroe Doctrine was the natural counterpart of this, for whilst the United States was determined to have nothing to do with European affairs her statesmen were strongly opposed to any European Powers interfering in the New World. The reason why this feeling was crystallised in the statement which has become known to fame as the Monroe Doctrine lay in the fear of American statesmen in 1823 that the combination of Powers known as the Holy Alliance would endeavour to restore the Spanish colonies to Spain, which colonies had just thrown off her yoke, and had established themselves as Republican States.

A Guardianship of the New World.

In his Presidential address James Monroe declared that there must be no intervention by foreign Powers in the political affairs of independent American States, and also warned off foreign Powers desirous of founding colonies on the American continents. Originally this was the sole object of the Doctrine, but as the United States waxed in strength it has come to be regarded as establishing a sort of general protectorate over the entire New World. In brief, it means to-day that the United States will not tolerate any outside interference whatever in any part of the American continent north or south. That being so, the Government at Washington has been perforce obliged to make itself more or less responsible for the financial integrity of the Latin States which, unwillingly many of them, were enjoying the protection of Uncle Sam. Only thrice has the Doctrine been seriously challenged, on one occasion with temporary success. When the United States was rent by civil war Napoleon III., who fretted to be a second Bonaparte, sent a French army to Mexico to establish Maximilian of Austria as Emperor there. No sooner though was the civil war over than the United States insisted upon the withdrawal of the few French soldiers who still remained in Mexico after the disasters which had overwhelmed Maximilian. Another challenge was over the famous Venezuelan boundary affair—in 1895—and on that occasion England and the United States were on the verge of war. The matter was, however, finally decided by arbitration. The last attempt by European Powers to interfere in South American affairs was in 1903, and

again Venezuela was the cause. On that occasion Great Britain, Germany and Italy actually blockaded the ports of the Spanish Republic, but the United States intervened, and the dispute was settled by the Hague Tribunal.

The Status Quo Anti-Bellum in China.

If Japan in future is determined to regard China as the United States regards South and Central America, then we must assume that she will inform all Powers that in future there is to be no interference in the political affairs of China, and will warn them against attempting to extend their spheres of influence in the Chinese Republic. The Monroe Doctrine did not in any way interfere with the possessions European Powers already had in the New World, it only prevented them from acquiring any more territory there. The Japanese, then, if they follow this example, will not interfere in any way with the spheres of influence and leases the Great Powers already have in China. But they must rest satisfied with this; must not endeavour to enlarge their possessions or influence in that country. The *status quo*, that is to say, must be maintained. As already indicated Japan is the dominant Power in China now, thanks to German defeat and Russian abnegation. Under the Eastern Monroe Doctrine that dominance would be made permanent, but as the "Open Door" policy would be maintained, such dominance would not preclude the other Great Powers from sharing equally in the commercial and industrial development of China. It has been assumed in most quarters that the Japanese declaration is specially aimed against Germany, and will end for ever the Kaiser's dream of developing the Shantung peninsula by German enterprise. Whether the new Monroe Doctrine will shut Germany altogether out of China or not depends, of course, entirely upon the terms of the treaty which ends the present conflict. It is quite possible that if the policy of "no annexations and no indemnities" be adopted the Germans may once more find themselves in Kiauchau, and the holders of concessions to build railways and work mines in rich Shantung. Japan's new policy would not prevent such reinstatement, but it would stop the Germans obtaining further territory or privileges in future. The declaration of Viscount Ishii has been splendidly received in the United States, where it is regarded as an adhesion to the "Open Door" Policy and as laying the foundation of a per-

manent friendship between Japan and America. If Japan and the United States between them can maintain the Monroe Doctrine in China, one of the most fertile sources of international complications will have been finally removed. Let us hope that the Doctrine will be upheld by Great Britain also, and that ere long it may be extended to embrace the entire Pacific.

NEW ZEALAND NOTES.

SEPTEMBER 28, 1917.

The cutting of the link of communication between the Commonwealth and the Dominion occasioned us more concern and inconvenience than was thought possible before the experience. Fortunately many of the wild rumours extant here in the absence of reliable news have proved groundless, and the dark hour is past. In the strike period many interesting matters have concerned us.

We are feeling the real pinch of war. The end of the first division is in sight, and the New Year will see the first exclusively married men's reinforcement in camp. Certainly the re-examination of the medically rejected men of the first division is proceeding. What proportion of fit soldiers this will give is problematical. The result of the first three days was announced this week. The Medical Board examined 199 C2 men in Auckland. Of these men fifty have been passed as yet, and 64 as C1, so that 114 go into camp. If this proportion is obtained throughout the whole country the call to the married men may be delayed awhile longer.

There is a growing conviction that New Zealand is attempting too much under the head of man supply. We have four brigades at the front, the fourth being formed of excess reinforcements. And yet we have been officially informed throughout, both during the voluntary and compulsory period of enlistment, that our reinforcements were short. Certainly we are reducing our supply now, but the reduction is not appreciable. Industry will be hit harder now by the larger enrolment of first division men in order that they may be "tried out" in camp. Our experience has been that a man's health is easily impaired in camp if he is predisposed to or suffering from certain ailments.

We have had a few minor labour troubles—a gas workers' strike in Wellington (settled), a coastal seamen's strike, and a strike of flaxworkers. Both of these seem in a fair way of settlement within the near future.

CATECHISM OF THE WAR—LII

Q.—Have the numbers killed in the Sinn Féin rebellion ever been published?

A.—It is generally stated that 300 persons were killed and 2000 wounded, but the exact number has not been published. Fifteen of the leaders were executed, and others were sentenced to varying terms of imprisonment, whilst a large number were deported to Britain and interned there. Recently many of the sentences have been remitted, and many of the internees have been liberated, but not long ago one at least of the prisoners died from the effects of a hunger strike.

Q.—How many ships would it take to transport the 200,000 Chinese soldiers who, it is said, are anxious to go to the western front?

A.—The usual staff calculation of transport for an oversea expedition is four tons of shipping per man. It would, therefore, require 800,000 tons to take those Chinese soldiers to Europe. The Americans reckon that to transport 1,000,000 troops across the Atlantic, together with guns, waggons, food, ammunition and so on, would need considerably over 4,000,000 tons of shipping. It is interesting to note that the total mercantile marine of the United States before the war began was 5,400,000 tons. This includes 2,300,000 tons on the Great Lakes, and 1,100,000 tons of sailing ships. Actually the deep sea steamers owned by the United States in 1914 totalled less than 2,000,000 tons. Of course, ships could make several trips across the Atlantic, but it seems pretty obvious that to transport the American soldiers to France and keep them fed and supplied with ammunition would require more than twice as many ships as the United States at present possesses.

Q.—I have seen it stated that the United States proposes to sell some of the German ships which were in its harbours when it declared war. Is this permissible?

A.—Statements are constantly being made with regard to enemy ships found in Allied ports when the war began. As I have repeatedly stated in these columns, according to international law, and by special agreements drawn up at The Hague and signed by all the Powers, such ships are not regarded as prizes of war. They must either be sent back to their home

ports or left where they are. If they are used by their captors payment must be made for this use—that is to say, they may be hired, just as ships are chartered in peace time. It is obviously impossible for the United States to sell what does not belong to it. It may, however, hand over some of these ships to the Allies, but they in turn would have to pay the hire.

Q.—But in the financial statements made in the Federal Parliament no reference appears to be made to such hire payments when the profits obtained by the working of German ships by the Government are announced?

A.—Reference to such payments does not appear to be made in the statements, but there is no doubt that ultimately the Commonwealth Government will have to pay for using these ships, and if such payments have not been allowed for, the large profits which we have been congratulating ourselves were being made, by working these ships, will very largely disappear.

Q.—Have the Finns the same coinage as the Russians?

A.—No, the Finns have a coinage of their own. It is a curious mixture, too, being a sort of combination of the German, British and French systems. The unit is the mark, or markka, in which there are 100 pennis, and which is worth a frank (9½d.). The standard is gold, and gold coins are the twenty and ten markka pieces; silver coins are the two, one, half, and quarter markka pieces; copper coins are the ten, five and one penni pieces. The metric system of weights and measures is universally employed in Finland.

Q.—When a periscope is seen, how is it possible to determine whether it belongs to an Allied or to an enemy submarine?

A.—It cannot be determined, as not only do periscopes look alike, but they are also hardly distinguishable in the water. Trouble has not, however, arisen in this matter hitherto, because Allied submarines have not taken part in naval actions in which enemy submarines were also engaged. There were apparently no British submarines in the Jutland battle, nor were there any in the running fight when the *Blücher* was sunk. Presumably, British submarines usually run on the surface, and

in any case they would not approach a merchant ship submerged.

Q.—What exactly is the meaning of the phrase, "Freedom of the seas"?

A.—Various explanations of this phrase have been given. During peace time there is no question that there has been absolute freedom of the seas, consequently the Americans, when they assert that after this war there must be entire freedom of the seas, refer to times of war, not of peace. That is to say, they would severely limit the right of the warships of any belligerent to interfere with neutral commerce during war time. At present, on the ground that neutral ships may be carrying goods which will eventually find their way to the enemy—though through a neutral country—Allied warships consider themselves justified in compelling them to put in at a British port for search. Had the Declaration of London been adopted in toto by all the belligerents, what the Americans understand as the freedom of the seas would have existed during this war.

Q.—Would you please explain why Trieste can be of no use to the Italians unless it remains a commercial Austrian port?

A.—Practically the entire trade of Trieste consists in importing goods for Austria, and exporting Austrian goods for foreign destinations. If the Italians took the city, and Austrian trade were diverted elsewhere, obviously, the harbour and wharves of this Adriatic port would be deserted. Either the Italians would have to divert to Trieste the trade which at present goes to Genoa, and other ports, or they would have to make an arrangement whereby the Austrians would continue to use this place as their window on the Adriatic. As the great industrial centres of Italy lie for the most part in the north-west, and their productions are most easily taken to Genoa, it is certainly unlikely that, in order to keep the port of Trieste busy, manufacturers would send their goods there in preference to Genoa. If the Italians did consider it absolutely necessary to divert trade to Trieste, they would have to give special concessions with regard to railway freights, and would no doubt have to subsidise steamship companies to go all the way up the Adriatic instead of calling at Genoa. It is certainly unlikely that the Austrians would agree to send their goods through an Italian-owned port; rather would they develop the Hungarian port of Fiume, which

in many ways would be even better suited to handle their own exports than is Trieste. Under these circumstances it is not at all improbable that when peace is made, supposing by that time the Italians have managed to fight their way into the city, Trieste would be internationalised, and would be utilised alike by Italy and Austria.

Q.—Is it likely that the British Fleet, supported by the Americans and French, will make a landing of troops on the Belgian coast?

A.—There is no likelihood of such a landing being attempted. The German defences would prevent it. The present drive of Sir Douglas Haig is intended to compel the enemy to retire from the coast, and thus deprive them of the jumping-off base for their aeroplane raids on London and their submarine raids in the Channel.

Q.—Is there a lion on the monument which was erected on the battlefield to commemorate the battle of Waterloo?

A.—There are three monuments at different parts of the battlefield. The most notable is the mound of the Belgian lion. This is an artificial mound of earth some 200 feet in height, which was thrown up on the spot where the Prince of Orange was wounded in the battle. It is close to La Haye Sainte, where such furious fighting took place in the early hours of June 18th, 1815. On the top of the mound is a large lion, weighing about 28 tons. It was cast at Liège, the metal being obtained from captured French cannon. When, seventeen years later, the French soldiers marched through Belgium on their way to Antwerp, they hacked off part of the tail, but Marshal Gerard protected the monument from further injury. It is often assumed by visitors that this monument represents the British lion, but as a matter of fact it represents the Belgian lion, as the Belgians have the same national animal as do we. Of the other monuments, one is an obelisk to the memory of the Hanoverian officers of the German Legion, and the other is a pillar to the memory of Colonel Gordon.

Q.—Could you tell me how long it took to convert the Great Western railway line in England from a broad to a narrow gauge?

A.—This was not done all at once. The original gauge was 7 feet, and owing to the inconvenience that the break of gauge involved when transferring from one railway system to another, it was decided to mix the gauges—that is to say, a third line

was added between the metals, and in this way the railway was adapted for vehicles of both 7 ft. and 4 ft. 8½ in. gauge. Gradually the various branches were all converted to the narrow gauge, and the 7 ft. gauge was done away with on them. It was not, however, until 1892 that the directors decided to abolish the 7-ft. gauge altogether on the main lines, as well as on the branches. This change was successfully carried out on May 21st and 22nd. The distance from London to Plymouth, which was all converted in the 48 hours, is 226 miles. The Cornish Riviera express, before the war, ran daily between London and Plymouth without a stop in 4 hours 7 minutes. One of the reasons why the directors hesitated to alter from 7 ft. to 4 ft. 8½ in. is said to have been because Queen Victoria so greatly preferred the more comfortable carriages on the larger gauge.

Q.—Could you tell me whether the 4 ft. 8½ in. gauge is universal in Europe?

A.—No, in Great Britain that is the gauge; in France also it is regarded as the standard gauge, although there are many miles of the 4 ft. 9 in. gauge, over which the rolling stock of the 4 ft. 8½ in. is used. In Central Europe the standard gauge is everywhere employed, but in Russia they use one of 5 ft. In Spain and Portugal the gauge is 5 ft. 5¾ in.; in Ireland, it is 5 ft. 3 in., although there are also lines there of 3 ft. gauge. In India the prevailing gauge is 5 ft. 6 in., but there is a large mileage of other gauges, especially the metre gauge (39.37 in.). In South Africa the gauge is 3 ft. 6 in.; in South America the most usual gauge is 5 ft. 6 in. In France and other European countries there is also an important mileage of the metre gauge. In Egypt the standard gauge is in use, but in the Soudan the gauge is 3 ft. 6 in.

Q.—Do the ships sunk by the U-boats on the high seas sink right to the bottom?

A.—Certainly they go to the bottom, no matter how deep the water may be where they are sunk. The depth of water where the *Titanic* went down is about 10,000 feet. The water pressure there is, of course, very great, but nothing like great enough to prevent an iron ship from sinking to the bottom once its water-tight bulkheads had given way. The ocean bed is further below the surface of the water on an average than the earth's surface is above it, and individual mountains are lower

than the greatest depths yet plumbed. The deepest ocean is the Pacific, where soundings up to 31,089 feet have been made, but near Porto Rico, in the West Indies, a depth of 31,366 feet has been plumbed.

Q.—Could you tell me what happened to the Germans who were living in Madagascar when the war broke out?

A.—I have no exact information on the subject, but presumably the same action was taken in that French colony as in others—that is to say, opportunities were given to these people to leave the country and go to a neutral state, or if they were unable to take advantage of this, they were interned.

Q.—Was there a special census of the religious population of Germany taken during 1914, or since the war broke out?

A.—A census is taken in Germany every five years, but it is very doubtful if one was taken in 1915. In any case a religious census would not be taken separately from the general census. If a general one were taken in 1915, the religions of the people would be recorded at the same time. In the census of 1910 the numbers were:—

Protestants	39,991,421
Roman Catholics	23,821,453
Other Christians	283,946
Jews	615,021
Unclassified	214,152

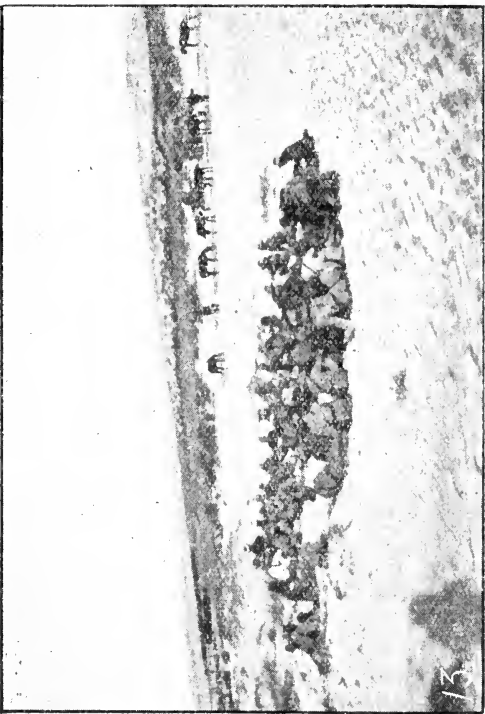
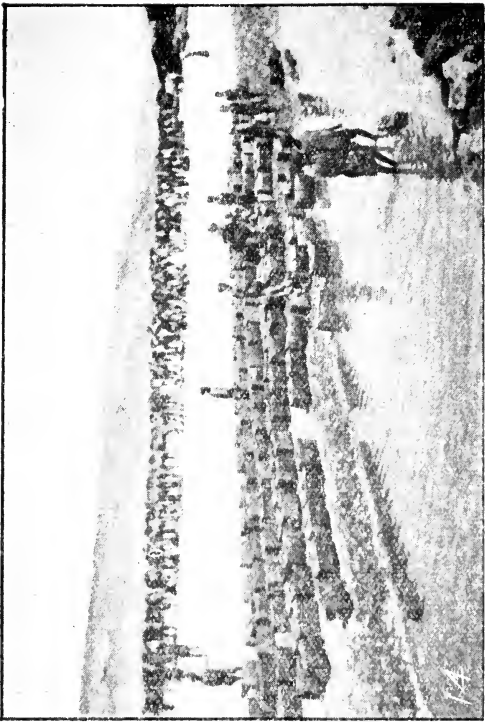
In 1900 the total percentage of Protestants was 62.5; in 1905, it was 62.1; and in 1910, 61.6. On those dates the percentages of the Roman Catholics were 36.1, 36.5 and 36.7 respectively.

Q.—Have the Danish exported much live stock to Germany?

A.—The Danish Government, owing to the great difficulty of securing fodder for the flocks and herds in Denmark, decided some little time ago to reduce the number of pigs by 50 per cent., of cattle by 25 per cent., and of horses by 15 per cent. Presumably most of the animals slaughtered went to Germany, although Denmark has, like Holland, an arrangement with Great Britain concerning the percentage exportable to belligerent countries. Much of the beef and pork available, though, has been purchased by the Danish municipalities, and is now stored in freezing rooms.

Q.—Could you tell me how many prisoners of war are now in Denmark?

A.—There are at the present time some 3000 prisoners of war of all nationalities there.



13. Group of oucers on beach listening to lecture on sanitation and flies.
14. Indians miling rannases in the Wadi Ghuzzi.
15. A group of Bedouin prisoners.
16. Turkish prisoners being fed.

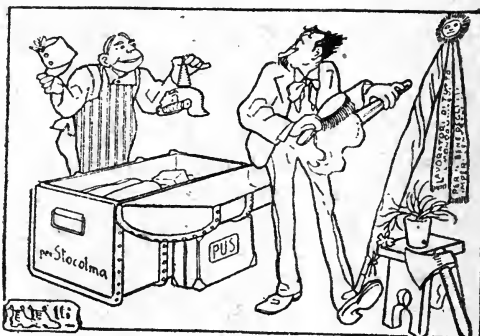
HISTORY IN CARICATURE.

Oh, wad some Power the giftie gie us
To see oursels as ithers see us.—Burns.

One of the best European cartoons dealing with the Stockholm conference is that which appears in the Dutch paper, *De Notenkraker*, reproduced on this page. The present rulers of the earth, at any rate, have shown themselves incapable of stopping the war.

Numero of Turin takes the view that the suggested conference is simply a German trick. The Dutch journal already referred to shows death declaring that only the sword can bring peace—by killing off everybody—and as background has a forest of crosses marking the graves of innumerable soldiers.

The People sees in Prussianism the only obstacle to peace, but does not suggest that the Allies should state definitely what their war aims are.

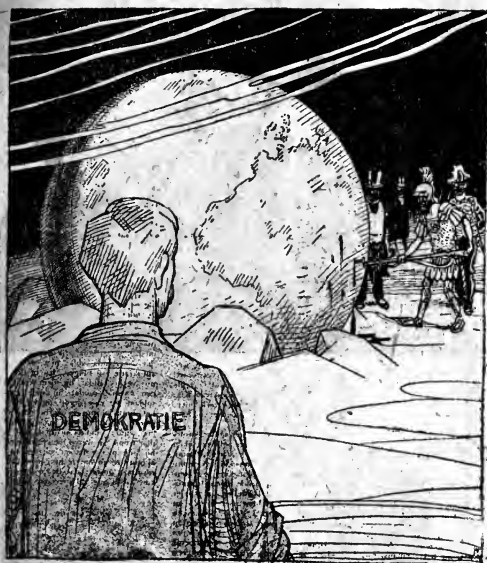


Numero.

[Turin.]

SETTING OUT FOR STOCKHOLM.

"Should I put the Pickelhaube or the forage cap in your trunk?"
"Imbecile! Don't you know that both are going to be needed."



De Notenkraker.

[Amsterdam.]

THE WEDGED WORLD.

THE IMPOTENT RULERS: "Ha, ha! The dilettante meddler of Stockholm thinks that he can move this better than we experts."



De Notenkraker.

[Amsterdam.]

THE APOSTLE.

"Man, believe in the sword! That alone can bring peace."



The People.]

THE OBSTACLE.

[London.

"Abiding peace will be guaranteed by the destruction of Prussian militarism."—Mr. Lloyd George.

The New York *Tribune* well depicts the food situation in its vigorous cartoon. The Louisville *Times* shows the earth the sport of war and the elements.

The arrival of the news of the Russian offensive a couple of months ago caused an altogether too sanguine spirit to prevail in Allied countries. One result of this was the cartoon in *The Passing Show*. Alas! though, Russia sleeps, in a military sense, once more.

Some of the Russians evidently resented the return of Lenin and other exiles to Russia. *The Novy Satirikon* suggests that the



Tribune.]

[New York.

NOT THE KIND OF CUSTOMERS TO BE TRIFLED WITH.

up-to-date Germans used a special train instead of a wooden horse to convey their champions into the citadel of their foes.



Louisville Times.]

[U.S.A.

SUMMER SPORT, 1917.



The Passing Show.]

[London.

THE SLEEPER—AWAKES!



Novy Satirikon.]

[Petrograd.

THE SAME IDEA.

The Greeks broke down the resistance of the Trojans by means of a horse filled with armed soldiers.

The Germans seek to achieve the same end by sending into Russia a train containing—Lenin and Company.



Novy Satirikon.]

[Petrograd.

ORDINARY RUSSIAN CITIZEN (apostrophising the former police): "Oh, dear shade of the past! If you only knew how my soul yearns for your return to remove this sun of liberty, which is too strong for my poor skin."

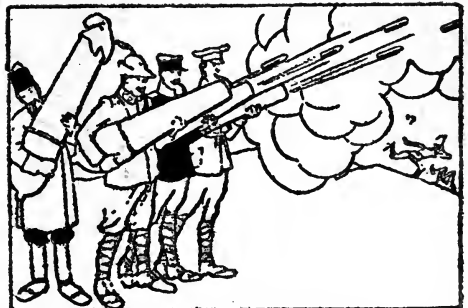
The New York *Tribune* shows the newly fledged Russia threatened by the German cat, which is given a clever appearance of the Kaiser. The Italian *Numero* deplors the spiking of the Russian gun, by the hat of liberty. Had it not been for that, it says, a united offensive would have been possible.



Tribune.]

[New York.

THE POOR ORPHAN.



Numero.]

[Turin.

The Entente would play in harmony if the Russian instrument had not got stopped up!

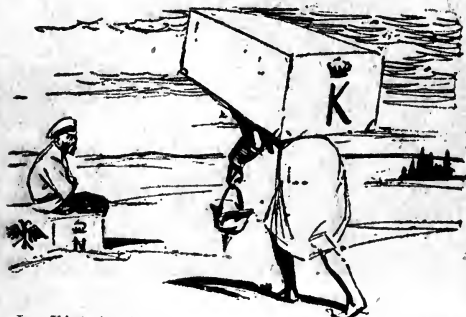


De Amsterdammer.]

[Amsterdam.]

THE "ABDICATION" OF CONSTANTINE.

EX-KING CONSTANTINE (to waiter at Swiss Hotel):
 "Reserve me one or two tables for colleagues
 who will join me later."



La Victoire.]

[Paris.]

THE SOVEREIGN'S ASYLUM.

CONSTANTINE: "Move up, Nicholas; some others
 are coming."



Il 420.]

[Florence.]

CONSTANTINE REPORTS HIMSELF.

WILHELM: "What necessity forced you to leave
 Greece?"

CONSTANTINE: "It was not necessity—it was the
 Entente!"



L'Asino.]

[Rome.]

CONSTANTINE: "The only thing left for me to
 do is to found a society of dismissed kings."

NICHOLAS: "I would advise you to wait until
 they are more numerous."

The papers continue to make fun of poor
 ex-King Constantine, but the cartoon in the
 Spanish *Campana de Gracia* is very signi-
 ficant in view of the recent troubles in
 Spain.



Campana de Gracia.]

[Barcelona.]

READY TO GO UP AT ANY TIME.



Evening News.] [London.

M. E. DOUBLE S.

HEADMASTER BULL: "So that's the way you spell it, is it?"

Two things have roused the British people to intense anger. One is the terrible disclosures about the Mesopotamian campaign, and the other is the evidence concerning profiteering which is daily accumulating. The profiteer too, comes in for a good deal



The Passing Show.] [London.
THOSE WHOM THE GODS LOVE DIE YOUNG.

of attention in the United States. It is indeed monstrous that so many men should be making money out of the ghastly struggle in Europe, should be creating a strong demand that the war must continue indefinitely no matter what the cost to the people.



The Appeal.] [Memphis.
IN THE ROGUES' GALLERY.



The Passing Show.] [London.
THE LITTLE PIG STAYED AT HOME.



Record.] [Philadelphia.
YOU CAN'T ALWAYS CONTROL A TORPEDO.



Le Rire.] [Paris.
THE POOR FISHERMAN!
"Der Teufel! . . . It is the Hindenburg line!"



Westminster Gazette.]

A FABLE THAT WENT WRONG.

"I smell lamb down the stream. I'll accuse him of fouling the water and then I'll eat him!"

"Ach! der Teufel! It is not a lamb but a lion, which grows bigger and bigger!"

"It is not quite the story of the wolf and the lamb. I will tell you why: because Germany expected to find a lamb, and found a lion."—Mr. Lloyd George, at Glasgow, June 29.)

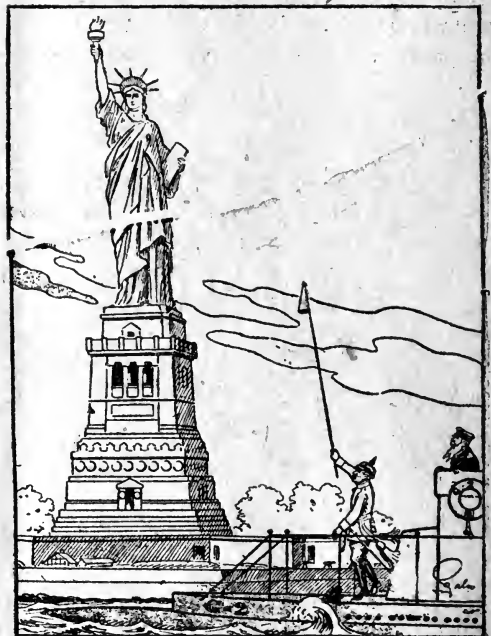


Le Pêle Mêle.]

[Paris.

THE KAISER'S INSIGNIA.

1. As they are.
2. As they ought to be.



Le Pêle Mêle.]

[Paris.

TOO HIGH TO PUT OUT.

WILHELM: "I did not anticipate that it would be so high. Quite impossible to put it out with this."



[Westminster Gazette.]

[London.]

THE OLD POTATO AND THE NEW.

NEW POTATO: "I say, Gran'dad, in the Great War what did you do?"

OLD POTATO: "'Taint vor I to brag, me boy, but they thort a mortal lot of we in they times."

NEW POTATO: "And did they give you a medal?"

OLD POTATO: "They didn't give me no medal, not as I knaws on, but the Guv'ment giv us a Maxymum and we wuz sprayed reg'lar to kape the hinsecks off!"

London Opinion satirises the attitude of the Bishops in demanding that there shall be no reprisals for the air raids in London.



[London Opinion.]

THE VICAR'S MAXIM.



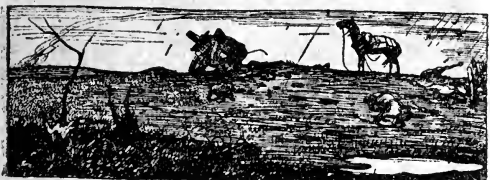
[London Opinion.]

THESE FLAG DAYS!

THE SUB.: "But I'm down to my last shilling!"

THE GIRL: "Well, remember, the Russians have parted with their last Sovereign!"

M. de S. d'Alba, who draws for the lively little French journal, *Pêle Mêle*, endeavours to imitate Captain Bairnsfather, and some of his cartoons are not at all bad. We reproduce one, "The Force of Habit," herewith.



- De Notenkraker.]

[Amsterdam.]

MILITARISM.

1. A display at the Stadium.
2. And in reality.



[Le Pêle Mêle.]

[Paris.]

THE FORCE OF HABIT.

THE CONCIERGE (at the front): "Come in! Come in!"

With the Light Horse in Palestine.

By A LIGHT HORSEMAN.

The following account of how the difficulties of obtaining water have been overcome by the troops operating between the Suez Canal and Palestine was sent me by a member of the Light Horse, who also took the photographs which frontispiece this issue of the magazine. Of special interest is the account he gives of the mosaic which was unearthed on the top of a hill not far from Gaza.

The Turkish line in Palestine at present fronts the British troops from Gaza to Beersheba. These names awaken old memories. It was from the former place that Samson carried off the city gates upon his shoulders, and it was to Gaza that, later on, he was taken, a blind captive, to grind corn for his enemies. The temple of Dagon, the Fish God of the Philistines, was situated here, and was the scene of his death, when he pulled down the pillars and destroyed the assembled multitude. Here, too, Alexander the Great was held up for two months on his way to Egypt, and was twice wounded in the fighting which took place before the city was captured. He took a terrible revenge on the inhabitants when at last he did win through its defences.

Beersheba, means "the well of the oath," and is said to be so called because here the patriarch Abraham made a covenant with a king of the Philistines in settlement of a dispute which arose with regard to the watering of their respective flocks. It seems remarkable that the Light Horsemen—representatives of the youngest of the world's races—should be camped before these places which are so associated with ancient history.

Wells, in the thirsty lands of the East, have always been, and still are, most important places, not only for the watering of stock, but of meeting with the women who go there to draw water. It was at such a place that Moses met with Zipporah, Jacob with Rachel, and the Great Teacher with the woman of Samaria.

That portion of the desert, contained within a triangle, having its base on the Canal and its apex at El Arish, about 200 miles distant, has no regular wells such as those at Beersheba and other places where grazing is carried on, but water may be found in most of the valleys and flat places

within it. It can always be found at the foot of the large sand hills.

The water, obtained from places where palms are growing, is mostly bitter, and cannot be used by the troops. In other places it is not bitter, and may be used; it has, however, a very peculiar taste owing to the presence of alkaline earth salts and the salts of light metals. The horses require some time to get used to it, but afterwards do well. The men cannot take it except with lime juice, or as tea. To drink it otherwise does not quench the thirst, but intensifies it.

As a rule water is obtained at a depth of eight or ten feet, and, as it is usually considered necessary to have five feet of water, the well must be about fifteen feet deep.

When one rides into the comparative comfort of a place like B——, one is liable to forget the engineers and troops who have gone on before, completed the wells, and provided the comforts. When a line of advance is proposed, a subaltern of engineers, with a field company of twelve or fifteen men and a troop of Light Horsemen, sets out to locate places, at suitable distances apart, where good water may be found. Occasionally, they prospect in localities where no water has recently been obtained, but at most of the suitable places there are indications of wells having been dug by others, some by Bedouins, and others by the Turks. The Bedouin's well is usually very shallow, and evidently made for a temporary purpose, as the absence of timber has prevented them from digging far into the wet sand. The wells made by the Turks are deeper and more useful. They cut down palm trees and used them in making crossed-log walls for their wells. The engineers constructed wells for themselves, notwithstanding the presence of suitable ones already there. In doing so,

they followed a method suggested by a Light Horseman, who had had experience in sinking in light soil in Queensland. By this method a framework of wood about six feet by four feet, and seven feet six inches high, is constructed. On this, boards are fastened until a box appears, without bottom or top. This is placed over the selected spot, and a considerable weight is put on top of it. A man in the inside of the box proceeds to dig out the sand, and, as he does so, the box sinks down evenly. When one box is thus lowered into the hole, another of the same dimensions, is placed on top of it, and the two, when completely lowered, give the required depth of fifteen feet, which includes five or six feet of water. The surface around the hole is then built up with sand bags, and the whole covered with a wooden top.

The field company erect, near the sand bags, several canvas troughs, long and narrow, supported along the top by a rope threaded through eyelid holes, and passing through stakes driven into the sand at intervals of a few feet. The water is raised from the wells by pumps and passed out into the troughs. When sufficient new wells, to provide for the number of horses and men expected, have been sunk, they are closed, a guard is placed over them, and the party move on to perform a similar duty at another chosen place. In this way wells were prepared along a sixty mile route, away from all other sources of water supply. In this distance there were five sets of wells.

Under ordinary conditions, it would be impossible to move out much beyond ten or fifteen miles, do a certain work, and return. One, then, can understand how much depends on the engineers keeping up with and supplying moving troops. They get all the troughs down and filled, ready for the animals to drink from. As soon as the last horse has been watered, the troughs are pulled up, packed on camels and horses, and hurried off to the next place, and so on, until the column reaches the point from which the attack is to be made. At the last set of wells the water is pumped into "fantasses"—specially prepared cans, each holding about ten gallons—which are carried on camels—one on each side of the hump. These are taken to the striking base and there emptied into troughs, and returned for more, until sufficient is obtained for all purposes. This is the last water provision for this movement, which is really a reconnaissance in force.

During this journey, one was forcibly reminded of the fact that time, in the desert, is counted not by weeks or months, but by sandstorms. A halt was made near a place which had been a Turk's camp at the time of their first attack on the Canal. It would now require a strong fatigue party to find traces of the usual camp debris, so covered was the locality by the wind blown sand. After searching over the spot, some strange-looking articles of attire were found. Several of these had the appearance of bed socks. They were made of camel's hair closely woven, and dyed in many colours, and are, without doubt, the Arab equivalent of the Indian moccasin. They had signs of wear on the heel and ball of the foot, and gave one the impression that they would be very useful for marching in sandy country.

The troops, on this particular occasion, had a very extraordinary experience. After watering at a certain set of wells, between seven and eight o'clock in the morning, they continued their journey for a distance of about five miles, when a taube, enemy aeroplane, was seen away to the left, and very high up. There were about 1200 mounted men in the company who, fortunately, at the moment when the taube was first seen, were moving in a scrub covered patch of sandy flat. In such a locality it is very difficult for an observer in an aeroplane to distinguish a horseman from the surrounding scrub. It was very strange, however, he did not see the dust raised by the movement of the troops.

The men were ordered to halt, and there they stood, calmly watching the airman dropping bombs along the railway line some distance away. One could hear the dull boom, and see the puffs of smoke made by the bursting shells from the British anti-aircraft guns. Some of the men, with characteristic indifference, made bets on the chance of their being the next target for the airman, others had their eyes anxiously fixed on the plane, and the bursting shells. The airman flew away, and the troops moved onwards. Shortly he flew back again, and they halted once more. The taube, at this moment, swung round and appeared to be coming directly over the watching men. He turned slightly, however, and flew over the wells at which the horses had been watered less than two hours previously. There he dropped other bombs, and one could distinctly hear the machine guns at the wells beating him off. Subse-

quently, he flew away without having observed the troops so near by.

A most remarkable mosaic was found after the Light Horsemen had driven the Turks from their positions on a hill at Shelal, which they used for an observation post. The mosaic is believed to be part of the floor of the chapel of a Greek monastery, erected shortly before the Mohammedan invasion swept along the northern coast of Africa. The Turks ran their trench system right through the site of the old chapel, and broke off a triangular portion of the mosaic. The remainder, under the direction of Chaplain Lieut.-Colonel Maitland Woods, is being lifted by men of the Australian Light Horse Brigade, with the object of sending it to one of the Australian museums.

Though most tedious, the process he is adopting is quite satisfactory. It consists, in the first place, of scrubbing the exposed surface, to remove the dirt and dust, and then, fastening squares of calico on its face. This holds the part together while it is undermined and separated from the remainder of the area. The separated portion is then floated in a plaster of Paris bath. When the plaster has set the cloth is removed. In this way portions about two feet six inches by three or four feet are taken up at a time.

One portion, which has been lifted just prior to my visit, bore a Greek inscription worked in black cubes. Its translation is:—"And he provided generously for the building of this church, who was the most saintly of us all, George the beloved of God, in the year 622 after." This was in the eastern end under the place where, it is believed, the altar stood. Later, I was told that further excavation revealed the remains of a skeleton directly below the place where the inscription was. It is thought the bones exhumed are those of the person named George in the inscription.

The hill on which the mosaic was found has a steep but gradual ascent on its western side, the eastern side is more abrupt. The character of the surroundings indicates that, at the time the buildings were erected, the locality was an extensive plateau with high precipitous sides, which was, perhaps, the reason why the site was chosen, based, either on its inaccessibility and corresponding safety from invaders, or on the influence of example from the Persians, who invariably chose places similarly elevated

upon which to erect their places of worship; possibly both factors led to the selection of the site. The hill, even now, commands a splendid view of the surrounding country, and, as in those early times, overlooks the crossing over the Wadi Ghuzzi—the main route to Beersheba and Jerusalem. It was in the vicinity of this crossing that St. Philip, at the bidding of the angel, went down and baptised the Ethiopian servant of Queen Candace.

The mosaic work covers an area of about ten feet by twelve feet. Around this area there is a margin, about two feet in width, worked out in red, black and white cubes. Upon the central portion, about six feet by eight feet, is depicted, symbolically, the Eucharist, as practised by the early church. Following the fuller spirit of the "last supper," the early Christians either preceded, or immediately followed, the spiritual features of the service with a social gathering or feast, the result being that on the outside of this central portion there are portrayed the figures of doves, fish, altars and crosses, and also the figures of peacocks, goats, dogs, and flamingos.

It has been suggested that the birds were present for the sake of ornament, the dogs as the usual occupants of the home in which the feast was being held, and the guard of the premises, while the goat was shown in token of the more essential part he was to play in the festival.

There are some central figures in the scheme about which a vine is traced, with its tendrils, bunches of grapes, and other features, done in black, in the white matrix which occurs in the spaces between the more conspicuous and highly coloured figures.

The whole pattern is worked out in red, black, white and green stones, which are, roughly, $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch cubes. The origin and nature of the stones have not yet been determined. They have the appearance of rough marble dice, and are polished on the exposed surface.

The green stones are certainly not marble or limestone. They show, as the result of similar exposure to that undergone by those of the three other colours, relatively, more decomposition; thus, while the red, black and white stones maintain their cubical shape when handled, even when separated from their neighbours and rubbed between the fingers and thumb, the green stones disintegrate readily under similar treatment.

THE UKRAINE.

Mr. T. Lothrop Stoddard has written some exceedingly useful articles on Europe, and especially on Russia. He deals with "Little Russia," in *The Century Magazine*, and tells of the people who dwell in the Ukraine, and are known as Little Russians. He considers that the forces now at work in Russia may transform her governmental structure and social life, and may even transmute its very being into something radically different from anything that we know.

Seen from without, Russia gives an impression of overpowering synthesis. We were, it is true, aware of certain non-Russian fringes, such as Poland and Finland, rebellious to assimilation; but we long believed that behind these outposts of empire lay a huge, compacted Russian mass, one hundred million strong, stretching uninteruptedly from Poland to the Pacific and from the Euxine to the Arctic Ocean, a boundless sea of homogeneous humanity into the unplumbed depth of which all the non-Russian elements must ultimately be drawn. This was the legendary "Holy Russia," which Muscovite Pan-Slavists eloquently assured us was destined to absorb the whole earth.

Whilst from a distance we saw the vision of the Russian unity, under close scrutiny we find a surprising diversity. Of the 180,000,000 inhabitants of the Empire, slightly more than 80,000,000 are non-Russian, while the remaining 100,000,000 are cleft into three sharply divided branches—Great, White and Little Russians respectively.

It is the sixty million "Great Russians" who are the real keystone of the vast Northern dominion. These are the "true Russian people"; to them alone is vouchsafed that consciousness of "Holy Russia" which is the mystic cement of empire. Even the Great Russian type is not wholly uniform. There are at least two well-marked subtypes, the northern or "Novgorodian," and the southern, or "Muscovite." And of course the Great Russians are not pure Slavs. Great Russia is the fruit of the Slavic Drang nach Osten, and its folk all show in varying degree the mingling of Slav colonists with the original Finnish inhabitants. Nevertheless centuries of a common culture and the iron rule of Muscovite tsars have finally welded the Great Russians into an indissoluble unity.

There is little real unity, though, between the Great Russians and their White and Little Russian cousins. The White Russians count for very little; they are barely 6,000,000 of them, and they dwell in the swamps and forests to the east of Lithu-

ania. Amongst them, race consciousness is very low. White Russia forms a debatable borderland between Russia and Poland, into one or other of which it will ultimately be absorbed. Very different, though, is the case with the Little Russians. They are 30,000,000 strong, and dwell right athwart East-Central Europe; resting upon the Black Sea in the south, they stretch eastward to the Don River, and in the north to the belt of swamp and scrub which extends across the mid-Russian plains and separates the open prairies to the south from the forest country of the north. In the west, they leap the political frontiers of the Russian Empire, and include the greater part of the Austrian provinces of Galacia, Bukowina, and North-eastern Hungary.

These Little Russians—Ukrainians, as they call themselves—hold that they are the truer Russian race and culture type, and history certainly seems to bear out their contentions. Had it not been for the terrible series of invasions which overwhelmed Eastern Europe, Ukrainia would have bulked large in the world's history. The great Mongol invasion broke the old Ukrainian State utterly to pieces. Kieff was razed to the ground. The wide prairies of Southern Russia were swept bare, and the western remnant of the Ukrainian people fell under the political dominion of the rising kingdom of Poland.

Then began the long martyrdom of the Ukrainian people—a martyrdom which has lasted uninteruptedly to this day. The Poles, though Slavs, had received their religion and culture from the Roman West, whereas the Ukrainians had taken theirs from the Byzantine East. As Poland's grip tightened, she endeavoured to force Roman Catholicism upon her Orthodox Ukrainian subjects. The land was parcelled out among Polish nobles, and beneath the merciless tyranny of his bigoted masters the unhappy Ukrainian peasant became that most wretched of beings, a heretic beast of burden.

But terrible as was their lot, before very long they made a strong bid for national freedom. As the Mongol power declined, bands of hardy Ukrainian adventurers, who soon became known as Cossacks, established themselves in fortified posts, capable of resisting the periodical Tartar raids. On the Dnieper they formed a formidable military republic which Poland promptly made desperate efforts to crush, with the result

that the early part of the seventeenth century saw a series of ferocious race wars in which quarter was neither asked nor given. The Cossacks actually managed to entirely throw off the Polish yoke, but seeing that they could not hope to stand alone against their formidable enemy they turned for help to the neighbouring country of Muscovy, and in 1854, the Cossack republic of the Ukraine accepted the Tsar as overlord, he promising full self-government and religious autonomy.

But the Muscovite proved a broken reed, and treacherous attempts to subjugate the Ukraine roused the Cossacks to revolt against the new suzerain. Thereupon the Tsar, feeling himself unable to hold the entire country, signed a partition treaty with the King of Poland, the Dnieper River being the common frontier. Thereafter Russians and Poles vied with each other in tyrannising over their respective spheres, and the lot of the unhappy Ukrainians became, if anything, worse than before. When Poland herself fell a century later, Russia seized most of her Ukrainian territories, only a small corner of Ukrainian land, the eastern part of the province of Galicia, going to Austria.

The collapse of Poland left Russia supreme and there was no rival to prevent her efforts to transform the Ukrainians into Muscovites, and accordingly the last vestiges of Ukrainian political and cultural life were put under a ban.

The native tongue was pursued with special fury. Ukrainian differs from Great Russian fully as much as Dutch does from German. In fact, the highest learned body in the Russian Empire, the Petrograd Imperial Academy, admitted a few years ago that the Ukrainians possessed a distinct language and culture of their own. That, however, was not the Russian Government's view of the matter. "There never has been, is not, and never will be an Ukrainian language or nationality," declared a Russian Minister of State in 1863, and this was merely the formal expression of what generations of Russian bureaucrats had already considered as axiomatic. All official business was carried on in Russian, a language almost completely unintelligible to Ukrainians, all Ukrainian writings save certain old books of devotion were rigidly proscribed, and Ukrainian education was so strictly prohibited that on many parts of the Russian Ukraine even to-day there are fewer schools than there were two centuries ago.

Penal servitude in Siberia was the punishment for those authors who attempted to write in their own tongue, and persecution of every sort was rife. It is surprising indeed that the Ukrainians did not altogether succumb. But forbidden all public manifestation, Ukrainian culture took refuge in the rich folk lore of the people, and in

humble peasant cottages the stirring ballads of old Cossack days kept alive the flame of freedom and the hope of a better morrow. So the national conscience lived on, furtive but indomitable.

What roused the Russian Ukrainians to their present vigorous strivings toward true national life was the fresh breeze which began blowing from the Austrian Ukraine about half a century ago. At the time of the partition of Poland, it will be remembered, Austria had received the province of Galicia, the eastern portion of which was inhabited by a Ukrainian population. Austria soon discovered in these people a useful counterweight to the Poles, and accordingly placed no barriers to the growth of Ukrainian cultural life. Quick to take advantage of the least favouring circumstance, the Ukrainians, or, as they were locally termed, the "Ruthenians," made the most of this opportunity, and eastern Galicia soon became the culture centre of the folk, an intellectual "Piedmont" for the whole Ukrainian race. Despite the best efforts of the Russian gendarmes, bright young Ukrainians slipped away by thousands to the schools of Lemberg and Tarnopol, where thought and speech were free, while from the Galician printing presses streams of books and pamphlets flowed forth to irrigate the thirsty culture-soil of the Russian Ukraine. This rapid cultural florescence is all the more remarkable when we remember that eastern Galicia had felt most heavily the weight of the Polish yoke. Even to-day the vast majority of the Ruthenian population are poverty stricken agricultural labourers terribly exploited by Polish landlords and Jewish middlemen. To have succeeded in thus erecting a really imposing educational and cultural edifice upon such unpromising foundations speaks volumes for Ukrainian idealism and tenacity.

It is somewhat tragic to find that the Poles who themselves have suffered so much at the hands of Russians and Prussians, should, in their turn, oppress the Ruthenians the moment the lighter Austrian yoke gave them the chance. In the Russian revolution of 1905 the Ukrainians saw their opportunity, and fought shoulder to shoulder with the Russian revolutionaries. The Ukrainian separatist feeling disappeared; all they asked for was cultural liberty, local self-government and an assured seat in a liberalised Russian Empire. Unfortunately, the Ukrainians soon found that the Great Russians, though they had won a measure of liberty for themselves, were not inclined to extend it to the Little Russians.

Unfortunately, the Ukrainians now discovered that their Great Russian Friends had very different ideas. "All the Slav brooks must lose themselves in the Russian sea," sang the poet Pushkin long ago, and that is precisely the creed of most Russians to-day.

In 1905 the Great Russians had won a definite share in the management of their country's destinies, but they at once testified to that historic truth, proved by every triumphant popular movement from the French Revolution, to that of the Young Turks, that an emancipated nation is a worse tyrant to racial minorities than was the autocrat who is displaced. In Russia this showed especially soon, and the very first years of the new era saw a truly amazing growth of "Pan-Russianism," perhaps the most ambitious and intolerant nationalist gospel that the world has ever seen. All the old dogmas anent "Holy Russia" and her divine mission to conquer and absorb the whole earth, came forth tricked out in the new formulate of Great Russian nationalism.

The result of this policy could easily have been forecasted, and the Ukrainians speedily abandoned their cry of liberty and equality for all Russians for one of separatism. Independence, until then, had not been seriously entertained, for they hoped to secure liberty within the Russian Empire by means of the revolution. When the revolution came, they saw their hopes irreparably shattered, and realised that they could expect no good from even the most democratic Pan-Russian Emperor. Accordingly the decade between the Russian revolution and the European war saw the rise of a deeply grounded separatist movement throughout Russian Ukraine. This ideal was cleverly taken hold of by the Austrians, and in the Austro-Russian dual for Balkan supremacy the Hapsburgs did not hesitate to urge the Ukrainian separatists to tear away all Southern Russia and erect a Ukrainian Empire which should exclude the Muscovite Tsardom from the Black Sea.

Great was Russia's alarm at this shrewd Austrian counter-thrust. Here indeed was a deadly blow at Russian imperial greatness. To non-Russian fringes of empire like Poland and Finland wide concessions might in the last extremity be made, but a separatist Ukraine would cut athwart Russia's very vitals and would forever block the Muscovite North from its age-long march toward Constantinople and the Mediterranean. All parts of the Russian press raised a united and furious outcry. Listen to the "Kiewlanin" of early 1914: "The Ukrainian movement is more dangerous to Russia than all the other national movements put together. It is our duty to maintain at all costs the unity of the Russian people and the Russian State. This, the citadel of our nation, is threatened solely by the Ukrainian movement, which thus appears as our greatest national peril."

According to Mr. Stoddard, so alarmed were the Russians that they started the movement for the acquisition of Eastern

Galicia and Bukowina, with the object of getting the entire Ukrainian race within the borders of the all-Russian Empire, in order to stamp out finally the propaganda for an independent Ukraine. He gives some account of the efforts made by the Russians to stir up all possible discontent against Austrian rule amongst the Ruthenians.

Despite energetic efforts and a great expenditure of money, however, this Russian propaganda had an indifferent success. The Ukrainian patriotic organisations were quick to warn the people of its ultimate objects, and some Muscovite agents met with a reception akin to that accorded a Pan-Slavist member of the Russian Duma sojourning in *partibus infidelium*, who was thrashed within an inch of his life by a crowd of infuriated Ruthenian peasants. The Austrian governmental authorities were also on the alert, their vigilance resulting in numerous arrests and "treason trials" like those of Lemberg and Marmaros-Sziget at the beginning of 1914.

Mr. Stoddard asserts that the crushing Austrian defeat at Lemberg was a terrible blow to Ukrainian hopes, for it gave the Russians control of all Galicia and gave them the opportunity of putting their Pan-Russian theories to the proof. Apparently the russification of Galicia was at once put in hand, and Russia struck quickly against the twin bulwarks of Ukrainism in Galicia, the Ruthenian education system, and the Uniat Church.

The Ukrainian language was formally outlawed, all the Ukrainian schools were closed, and the printing of Ukrainian books and newspapers was rigorously forbidden. A whole corps of Muscovite schoolmasters was sent in, headed by such notorious Russifiers as Dr. Yavorsky of Kieff, and the equally notorious Plesky, whose name had long been a terror throughout the Russian Ukraine. The watchword of these new educational mentors was, "For Russian Galicia nothing but Russian schools." They certainly lived up to their motto.

Anticipating something like this, the Ruthenian population, instead of welcoming the incoming Russian troops, displayed sullen apathy, or open fear, and more than 200,000 fled with the Austrians to the West. All leaders of Ukrainian national feeling were deported to Russia. Fanaticism against the Jews was successfully stirred up, and many perished in a series of atrocious pogroms. It was not, therefore, surprising that, when the Teutonic troops surged back into Galicia, they were received with great rejoicing.

Regarding conditions in the Russian Ukraine not much is known, but what little news has leaked out indicates a state of affairs bordering on terror. At the very

beginning of the war the Russian Government imposed a regime of exceptional severity. Wholesale arrests cowed the popular spirit, and the Russian Ukraine, flooded with troops, sank into death-like silence.

Mr. Stoddard speculates as to what will happen to the Ukrainians as a result of the present war. If the Austro-German armies overrun Southern Russia, they will unquestionably set up a Ukrainian State. On the other hand, if the Allies win Russia will claim Galicia as part of the spoils, and the entire Ukrainian race would thus find itself under Muscovite rule, and would certainly suffer drastic russification. He wrote, however, before the Russian revolu-

tion had entirely altered the position, but in a post-script he states that most of the Russian Liberals are wedded to the Pan-Russian idea, and would not agree to home rule for the Ukraine. It was his refusal to recognise the claims for Ukrainian independence that caused the fall of Professor Miluikoff, and others of his democratic colleagues. In view of the present withdrawal of the Cossacks to the Ukraine, Mr. Stoddard's article is of special interest, for, unquestionably, if they so wish the Little Russians now have it in their power to separate themselves from Russia proper.

ENGLAND IN 1930.

The Strand Magazine recently asked several prominent men to prophesy as to what England would be like in thirteen years' time. Some of the answers are illuminating, but others appear merely to be the echo or other people's stereotyped opinions.

Sir Arthur Conan Doyle considers that after we have won a complete victory, we can safely reduce our military expenses to a minimum, and therefore it will be possible to institute many measures of social reform. "The money saved from the fighting services should give us enough to increase the present old age pensions which are too low, to subsidise scientific research, to encourage education on a large scale, and to deal with the whole subject of poverty and disease in a drastic fashion." He hopes that temperance legislation will take the form of the regulation of the strength of the intoxicant, and looks to profit sharing and co-operation as the solution of the inevitable labour troubles which must come. In conclusion he says:—"I believe that, taking the history of the last twenty years, we have, in spite of some ameliorating influences, lived in the most wicked epoch of the world's history, so that all changes are likely to be for the better."

Dr. C. W. Saleeby, who is an authority on eugenics, deplores the fact that the next generation will be born of fathers inferior, as a whole, to those whom the war has taken, but he considers that the organised attempt to reduce the infantile mortality is already bearing fruit, and that the beneficial result in the physique and happiness of the next generation of citizens will be a strange, but blessed, result of this war. He expects that the standard of public

health and efficiency will be permanently raised.

Mr. Oswald Stoll is frankly pessimistic. He says:—

If without compensating financial concessions the Government takes from the many by inevitable £500,000,000 annual budgets the means whereby they might live and prosper, and hands over these vast sums to the comparatively few in the process of reducing a quota of our £4,000,000,000 of war debt, England will be a hard place to live in. The few resting on their laurels will invest their funds in income-producing securities throughout the world. The country will be gradually depleted of great factories and engaged commercially in the shipping of our choicest raw materials abroad for productive use elsewhere. From a decreasing population, the vigorous youth, with their spirit of enterprise, will go to newer lands where work will pay better, where the burden of war debt will not compel the Government to take so much of their earnings, where living will therefore be easier, the rearing of a family a pleasure, and enterprise bring reward as well as responsibilities.

The Government, in his opinion, must arrange for compensating financial concessions to induce people who have money to employ it for productive purposes only, then production will abound, he says. The demand for labour will be multiplied, and all problems of wages and employment solved. In time financial democracy will take the place of financial oligarchy.

Mr. Ashmead Bartlett thinks that perhaps the gravest issue of 1930 will be the feminist one. "If the war lasts another year we shall have reduced the vitality of our man power to deplorable lengths. Meanwhile the brain power and independence of the female sex is increasing; man is being displaced." He concludes:—

We shall not know England in 1930 as we knew her before the war. Happy-go-lucky, irresponsible, with the divergent political elements ever quarrelling in public, but generally ready to meet at a dinner-table, a fancy-dress ball, or a private party. In 1930 we shall be lifted out of ourselves, so to speak. In 1930 we shall have learnt the relative importance of domestic, foreign, and Imperial questions. We shall be saner, but life will have lost much of its old charm. Democracy does not make for the comfort of the few at the expense of the many. With the smashing of the Huns, the last barrier of servitude, both national and domestic, is swept away. The servant question will become acute, and the housewife will live to curse the day that discipline was destroyed in the cause of liberty. For years we shall groan under almost unbearable taxation. Old family estates will have to be broken up. I think the law of primogeniture will go, and small estates will become the order of the day. Marriage laws will have to be changed if we are to get back our lost population. Sport and pleasure will be modified. We shall find ourselves in a world of realities made absolutely necessary by the awful strain imposed on us by the war. All the old trappings of mediaevalism will have disappeared. Titles will be limited to those who have performed some great service to the State. The highest positions in the Government round the throne will be open to merit alone, and to the competition of the entire nation.

The Bishop of Birmingham considers that England could be a real federated Empire, with all branches sharing in its management, and concludes:—

England in 1930 should, socially, be a land in which those who desired to live luxurious lives should receive the contempt of their fellows. We have learnt that slackness, indifference, self-pleasing, are curses in citizenship. The cumberers of the ground must be uprooted. Democracy must be a real thing, beloved by all, and its teachings practised by all. The fear which is in some of our hearts is lest, after the war, with all its energy and devotion, people should revert to languor; and it is against this danger that active steps will have, no doubt, to be taken.

The most interesting contribution of all comes from the pen of Mr. H. G. Wells, who says:—

What will Great Britain be like in 1930? That is a tremendous challenge to the guess-

ing mind. It depends, as indeed the whole future of the world depends, upon the ideas that prevail in the peace settlement that must come somewhere before the end of next year. These are creative days. What men have the courage to think and decide to-day will become hard fact for centuries ahead. And there are two main sets of ideas struggling for predominance now in men's minds, one of which leads plainly to human welfare and the other to an ever more destructive struggle for life. The first group looks to a sinking of private interests in public service and to sinking of national sovereignty in some form of world-unity, a League of Nations, the United States of the World, the one central idea of world-unity. With it go naturally ideas of universal (not partial) free trade, of a world control of shipping, of a world control of natural resources and the like. With it, too, go ideas of universal education, of that universal participation in the ideas of government which is called "democracy," and of a universal sharing of the burthen of labour. On the other hand is the second group of ideas, ideas of national jealousy, of suspicious sovereignty, of the cut-throat competition of peoples and races, of loyalty to little monarchies and traditions, tyranny over "inferior" peoples, discipline for "labour," and disloyalty to mankind. Many of us British seem to be tremendously obsessed by a narrow conception of our so-called "Empire" and by the idea of making it into a close system, knit by high tariffs and financial and transit manipulation, against the outer world. That is the path of death. If we broaden our views from "Empire" to "League," then in 1930 we may be, with our American kindred, with the Latins and the Russians, leading mankind into a new age. The world may be already largely disarmed; it may have recovered altogether from the vast wastes and exertions of these war years; it may be such a scene of hopeful activity and human happiness as only Utopians have dreamt of hitherto. But if we cling to the old mean Imperialist dream, then the "British Empire" in 1930, heavily armed, heavily ruled, monstrously taxed, and with exasperating tariffs and maddening obstacles stuck in the path of every other State's prosperity, will be drifting towards the role that German militarist imperialism plays to-day, as an intolerable nuisance to mankind. Internationalism or Imperialism; these are the alternatives. I, myself, am far too deeply involved in these disputes to be able to guess which side is winning. But it is plain which side I want to win.

NEUTRALS AND PEACE.

Mr. L. Simons, who has written several sensible articles on the problems of neutrals in the war, contributes one to *The Atlantic Monthly* on "Neutrals and Permanent Peace." He entirely agrees with President Wilson that if the world is to

be given a chance for anything like permanent settlement at the conclusion of this war, it will have to adopt the basic principle of "No annexations, no economic leagues of one group against the other." The watchword of the future, he says, will

have to be international co-operation, certainly not international economic strife, assisted by protection and elimination.

The fact that the present war originated in a kind of dynastic or racial quarrel between Austria and Serbia should not for a moment blind us to the facts of international history of the last twenty-five years. During this period Europe and the world at large have constantly been waging war, or living on the brink of it. But if Britain and France, Britain and Germany, Britain and Russia, France and Spain, France and Italy, Italy and Turkey, Germany and France, Japan and Russia, Britain and the United States of America, the United States and Spain, United States and Japan, threatened to come to blows, or actually went to war, it was not on account of political questions near at home, but rather because of questions arising out of the general policy of expansion in America, Africa, West and East Asia.

Even when the more strictly national questions came to the front, as in the Balkans, economic exigencies and the pressure for outlets to the open sea for Austria, Serbia and Russia, and for Germany free play in Asia Minor, were always behind the so-called racial and national differences.

In reading the history of these last twenty-five years, one finds one's self confronted by such an intricate network of diplomatic intrigues to get the better of the other parties, to make the most of another nation's difficulties, to form combinations and counter-combinations, that one is bound to come to the conclusion that peace now made on a purely European basis would give no security whatever against future troubles and outbreaks. So long as there remains any chance of a race for concessions and monopolies, for the favouring of national commerce and industry, or for "friendly treaties," which practically mean annexation, no real peace is possible. If "chartered companies" can cause raids and wars; if the murder of a few missionaries, sent out to open the way for trade, is looked upon as giving sufficient right to claim "compensations"; if the demand for concessions for railways, like the Bagdad line, can be turned into causes for political "measures" and international governmental wrangles, we need not hope for lasting peace, even if all the nationalities in and outside Europe were to be given their own again.

It is clear, he says, that a peace based on outdoing one's competitor will have as little sound foundation as a house built on shifting sands.

If, therefore, the world is to be set really at rest, and not again handed over to unending conflict, the entire aspect of the commercial and industrial world will have to be revolutionised. We shall have to eliminate the smallest possible chance of strug-

gles for "places in the sun." In other words, every one will have to be welcome everywhere. The doors will have to be thrown open, all the world over. The world's exploitation of commercial and industrial assets and possibilities will have to be made a universal instead of a national affair.

He considers that narrow schemes for commercial alliances put forward by both the Central Powers and the *Entente* must be abandoned, and that, startling as it may appear, the only way out is to go in for universal free trade. He considers that there is hope for the internationalisation of the world's commerce and industry. Things will be very different, he says, after the war is over. Everywhere machinery and methods have been improved; former clients will have become independent of each other, and better able to compete. Prices and values will, in consequence, run each other closer than ever before. A fractional change in price will mean big orders won or lost. Such a state of close competition will compel the cutting down of margins of cost of production to the lowest possible level. Differences in the cost of living will tell their tale more effectively than ever.

The first result will therefore be the establishment of a tremendous case for free importation of foodstuffs. The next will be another strong case for free importation of materials. Free importation of goods in the rough will follow. Last of all will come the free importation of the necessities of life. The only remaining things on which customs duties can be levied will be luxuries of all sorts. The fact that the margins in price will be very small, will give national industries an easy lead in their own countries, so long as the freight charges from one part of the country to another do not exceed the freight charges from any foreign state. From a purely economic point of view, therefore, the chances for international free trade are not so bad as they may superficially appear.

He is quite convinced that unless the open door policy is adopted there is not the slightest chance of a world peace.

If mankind comes to its senses after the war, we shall find a multitude of arguments in favour of universal free trade. It is not to be assumed yet, however, that it will come to its senses, or that it will profit by the lessons of history, for the simple reason that, generally speaking, men know very little of history; and what they know is mostly incorrect.

He cites Holland as an object-lesson of the value of free trade. "Why," he asks, "should the Dutch remain alone in their adherence to a system which has done so

much for them, under the worst conditions?" There are two elements which will certainly work for international co-operation when the war is over. The first is as follows:—

Whatever may be said of the animosity and hatred fanned to such terrible heat by journalists and politicians, who have not been in the war, in the armies no such mutual hatred exists, and we may rely on the return of the troops to knock this nonsense out of the stay-at-homes. Besides, no hatred or distrust born of former wars has prevented Britain and France, Russia and Japan, Bulgaria and Turkey from fighting side by side, the moment it became clear where their interests lay. If only the basis of the peace to be concluded be such as to eliminate causes of friction, there is no reason why the natural run of economic co-operation cannot be secured.

The second thing which will bring about international co-operation is, he considers, the tremendous burden of taxation which the nations in Europe will have to bear. He says:—

WHEN THE SERBS FLED THROUGH ALBANIA.

"A brigand in the best and worst senses of the word"—this is how the Bishop of Durazzo describes Essad Toptan Pasha, the man who, even although he has been obliged to flee the country, is still the dominating influence in Albania. In an article by O. de L. in *The Contemporary Review*, some interesting information is given about Essad and about Albania generally.

The writer met the retreating Serbians when they entered Albania, a starving mob, in 1915, and he tells of the terrible journey through the trackless mountains on which the snow lay thick. Of Albania he says:—

The claims of Albania to sympathy are not inferior to those of any of these small nations. She has suffered the ravages of a war in which she has no interest or concern; she has been compelled to see her soil, whose integrity Europe had but a year since solemnly decreed, become the battle-field of foreign armies; and in addition, she can claim as against the Western Powers—a claim which she shares with Belgium, Serbia and Roumania—that she supported their cause, and was disappointed of their aid. But Albania lacks resources, which even unhappy Belgium and Serbia can command. She is the weakest of all the small States, and the most backward. She has no recognised Government, either on the spot or in exile, no machinery of propaganda to put her case and voice her grievances. She has not the ear either of the Western Powers or of the neutral

To prevent state bankruptcy, either the debts or the military preparation will have to be curtailed; and if we count on a return of common sense after peace is concluded, we need not ask which of the two will have to suffer. After this terrible waste, every nerve must needs be strained to restore the shattered economic fabric. So, apart from psychological and sentimental factors at work, the policy of every statesman in Europe will have to be directed toward a diminution of armaments, and as this can be made possible only by mutual consent, co-operation must be the watchword of the near future.

Mr. Simons is quite convinced that the little nations would be in grave danger unless tariffs were abolished. He advocates a federation of Europe, and says that practical experience teaches us that federation may include states very wide apart or very near each other, and that it may knit them very close together or leave them practically independent, but that whatever form it takes it is always effective in abolishing war as a means of solving differences between the federated states.

nations; while Austria, in answer to her mute appeal, merely replied: "I will be a mother to you," and overran the country. English sympathy with this wild and generous fighting race is traditional since the days when Byron sang the virtues of the Suliote. Englishmen have penetrated valleys and strongholds of the Albanian highlands, where no other traveller has been, and have enjoyed the Homeric hospitality which the Albanian offers to the honoured guest.

The writer deplores the Allied policy in the Balkans, and the lack of foresight which left the Serbians to meet the victorious Austrians and Bulgarians entirely unsupported. On September 28, 1915, Sir Edward Grey delivered in the House of Commons what was popularly described as "a stern warning to Bulgaria," and assured Tsar Ferdinand that we should "give our friends in the Balkans all the support in our power, in a manner that will be most welcome to them, and in concert with our Allies, without reserve and without modification."

At the same moment, in Nish, the French and English Military Attaches were informing the Serbian General Staff that it must be months before any effective help could come from England and France. It was obvious that before the overwhelming pressure, which was developing simultaneously from the north and from the east, the Serbian Army (not much larger than the British Army at the outbreak of war) could

put up no permanent resistance. The French General Staff pressed upon the Serbians the vital importance of securing, at whatever cost of men and material, the line of retreat to the south, where it was hoped in time to collect an Anglo-French force to support them. At Salonika, if the pursuit were carried so far, they would at least be covered by the guns of the Allied fleets in the Mediterranean. It would not be surprising if at this agonising moment the Serbians were dubious as to English aid ever being forthcoming at all; and the report of the English Foreign Minister's speech, arriving at this juncture, undoubtedly had a peculiarly cruel effect.

But already it was too late to retreat to Salonika, as the Bulgarians, attacking further south than had been expected, soon cut the railway line and blocked the only way of retreat. Hemmed in north and east, with the door rapidly closing on the south, the harassed Serbians elected to retire to the west. They preferred to risk getting through the barrier of the high Albanian Alps rather than remain behind and surrender to the enemy.

The weary columns of the Serbian Army, hotly pursued by the enemy artillery, and hampered by long trains of waggons in which influential officers and politicians were allowed to bring their families and even their furniture, wound their way slowly into the mountains. When the foothills were passed, all the waggons had to be left behind, and—the crowning misfortune—the guns. The mountains of High Albania constitute a barrier at least as formidable as the Alps in the time of Hannibal; and Hannibal was not called upon to pass the Alps with unarmed and exhausted troops. There are no roads in High Albania: the only passes are precipitous tracks, where none but mountain ponies have ever been; and in November, when the snow lies thick, the tracks are not visible. There are no means of provisioning, and the Serbians had accumulated no magazines. Probably no other European Army would have attempted the passage. When the Serbian Army issued on the other side, the troops had had no issue of rations of any kind for six days. Many of the men had sold their rifles to the Albanian highlanders for bread. Numbers collapsed by the way, and where they collapsed they died. The Austrian and Bulgarian prisoners, who were driven like cattle in front of the retreating army, fared worst. It is estimated that their numbers were reduced on the passage through the mountains by so much as 50 per cent.

That awful retreat will no doubt some day be described, but the loss amongst the prisoners gives some idea of the fearful hardships which were encountered. What was left of the Serb army poured into Scutari and speedily ate up everything in the town. Before long, however, the Austrian troops defeated the Montenegrins, and

poured down into Northern Albania. The Serbs had again to take the road, and dead horses and soldiers marked their passage. Finally they reached Durazzo, a small, constricted town, where the troops were packed within very narrow limits.

No attempt was made to enforce any sanitation, and the streets and courtyards of the billets were filled in a very short time with an accumulation of filth. The Italians, who were also here at this time, were mostly outside the town. The municipal authorities showed considerable enterprise, and organised a corps of sweepers; but the Serbians did not change their methods; the small stock of chlorate of lime in the town was soon exhausted; and the accumulation was more than the sweepers could cope with. The inevitable consequence followed; the water was polluted, and before the Serbians left the town the cholera had begun; they themselves carried it with them on the road to Valona.

Austrian aeroplanes raided the town daily, and as there were no anti-aircraft guns, they flew low and did much damage.

We are accustomed to express indignation when German raids on our coast-towns destroy women and children; but at least the victims belong to a belligerent nation, and the raiders appear to have some case in international law. The Albanian women and children, who fell victims to the Austrian aeroplanes in Durazzo, belonged to a neutral nation.

There is, he says, no real comparison between the violation of Belgium by the Germans and the violation of Albania by the Serbs.

Serbia entered Albanian territory for very good reasons, reasons bearing a strong family resemblance to those which took us on to Greek soil. Greater foresight on our part would perhaps have obviated the necessity for either "violation." A more interesting point to anyone who has the slightest acquaintance with the historic relations of the two peoples is how it came about that the Serbian Army ever came out of the Albanian fastnesses alive. For centuries the two races have robbed and butchered one another, wherever they have been in contact; three years before, in the Balkan War, Serbian troops had marched across Albania, burning and slaying; at the Peace the European Powers, in erecting an independent Albanian State, had acquiesced in the surrender to the two Slav Kingdoms of four towns, Ipek, Djakova, Prizrend and Dibra, which constitute the sole markets for the produce of the Albanian mountaineers, and of which three are mainly, and one wholly, Albanian in population; after the outbreak of the European War Montenegro had occupied Scutari and the whole of the strip of Albania north of the Drin; while all Europe knew that Serbia's aspirations, too, extended as far as the Adriatic. And now the wheel had gone full turn; the hated Shkvar was in headlong flight from his native land, with-

out guns, without ammunition, without food; and his way lay through the trackless and unmapped region of their own mountains. They held him in the hollow of their hand; and, if to all mankind revenge is sweet, to the Albanian it is the main object of existence. From the heights he could have picked them off, man by man, pony by pony, as the columns wound their way, single file, across the snow; and not one in the long chain of victims would have seen a glimpse of his slayer. No one who has not been in High Albania knows the perfection to which rifle-shooting, when practised as a primal function of nature, can be brought.

The writer gives an illustration of the extraordinary marksmanship of the Albanians, which, however, he hardly expects his readers to believe. He asks by what miracle it was that the hands of the Highlanders were held in those days of November, 1915. In the north he considers that it was due to the Archbishop of Scutari, who held back the Catholic tribes of his diocese. Further south, the Abbot of the Mirdites kept back the members of his flock, but neither prelate could influence the Moslems. The only man who could reach them was Essad Pasha, and everyone waited breathlessly to see what he would do. His friendship was well worth buying, and he would have had no difficulty in making peace with Austria.

He might have continued to protest friendship for the Allies, and at the same time secretly have made his peace with the general of the advancing Austrian army. He might have issued stringent orders to his gendarmes to protect and assist the retreating Serbians, and at the same time have caused to be whispered a word in the bazaars at Elbassan and Berat, which would not have allowed a man of them to escape alive. For either policy he could have found precedents in his own past career; and it was certainly not love of Serbians which was likely to deter him. But he did neither of these things. Except in the South, where his writ does not run, the Serbians passed the mountains unmolested. And in the hour of our discomfiture, when Serb and Italian, French and English, were all preparing for the retreat from Durazzo, the Pasha continued to support the Alliance, and left the town with us when we left.

Despite the fact that it was known that the Austrians were coming from the north and the arrival of the Bulgarians was momentarily expected in the south, Essad's

word was still law with the mountaineers of Central Albania, and though he left Durazzo when it was evacuated, his word still carried weight in Albania. "Can a personality of this kind," says O. de L., "be ignored when the final settlement of the Albanian problem is struck? Apart from all considerations of gratitude or loyalty to a faithful and unfortunate Ally, a fundamental political blunder will be made by the Western Powers if the claims of Essad are left out of account. Rich or poor, in power or in exile, so long as the Toptan chieftain lives he is bound to be a factor of the first importance in the politics of his land. The writer thus describes Essad:—

After the excent omnes from Durazzo, the Pasha was to be seen, from time to time, in Rome, Paris, and London; a shortish, stoutish figure, in London-made clothes, indistinguishable from the crowds that frequent the big hotels of European capitals, except for a certain air which only those wear who in any country have been born to command and are accustomed to take decisions. In dealing with strangers he has the voice and manner of the modern Turkish official—polite, reassuring, and wholly non-committal. Men who have raised themselves as Essad raised himself sometimes develop a faculty for pungent or illuminating remarks; but no one ever quoted sayings of Essad; they are too busy watching to see what he will do. He has few or no intimates except, it is believed, his wife. As a diplomat he can rival Nicholas of Montenegro, with whom he has done at least one notable deal in his time. As a ruler he takes far higher rank. If he had had time, he might have established his power on a scale at least as far-reaching as Ali of Janina. He may do so yet. In the hectic days when Wied reigned and he ruled in Durazzo, he was busy extending his power to the south; but the Wied regime collapsed before he could attain his objects. Doubtless, his record will not bear scrutiny in the light of the strictest pre-war standards. But he is a ruler such as the Albanians understand and admire, whose faults are the Albanian faults, and his virtues the Albanian virtues; and he has both on the grand scale.

O. de L. confirms the brief announcement which appeared some time ago that the General in command of the Italian army of occupation in Valona proclaimed an Italian protectorate over all Albania early in June of this year.

HOME RULE FOR IRELAND.

Mr. John Robert O'Connell contributes a sane article on the Irish question to *The Fortnightly*. He touches but briefly on the need for Irish self-government, which he insists is now everywhere recognised. "The desire of the Irish people for the right of self-government is stronger and better defined than it has ever been before," but there is general dissatisfaction with the Home Rule Act as it finally became law, and grievous disappointment with the tortuous policy of the Government in applying it. After briefly touching on the necessity for Home Rule he says:—

It does not seem necessary, therefore, to urge that some measure of self-government must be granted to this small nationality without any further delay, not only in the interests of England and of the Empire, but also to consolidate and retain the goodwill of the self-governing Dominions and of our allies in the United States. The professions of sympathy with and protection of small nationalities, the oft-repeated declaration of the right of peoples, large and small, to work out their own destinies, would ring remarkably hollow if the end of the war were to find a disillusioned and discontented Ireland denied that measure of responsible self-government which the political genius of Irishmen has so largely helped to work successfully in all the Dominions of the Empire. The frank admission of the complete breakdown of the existing system of government in Ireland made by Mr. Asquith after his visit to Ireland following on the rebellion of Easter week, and the constantly recurring evidences during the last twelve months of that breakdown, prove that the reconstitution of the government of Ireland is a matter of great urgency, and it is felt by all parties in Ireland, outside North-east Ulster, as well as by public opinion in Great Britain that no long delay must take place in confiding the working out of a solution to a convention representative of all Irishmen.

It is generally assumed that the Unionists are still irreconcilably opposed to any form of Irish self-government, but he says this is very far indeed from being the case.

Outside a corner in North-east Ulster, there is almost a unanimity of feeling in favour of an immediate and a generous measure of self-government. Not only is Nationalist opinion—and this represents all shades of national politics—stronger than it has ever been before in its demand, but Unionists and Conservatives and non-politicians of various kinds have gradually come to realise that the only hope for the future of Ireland and for the development of her

trade and commerce depends upon the early settlement of a problem which the continuance of the war, increase in taxation, the dislocation of trade, the apprehension that the anticipated industrial conflict in England may spread to Ireland, the long-continued neglect of social legislation in Ireland, make every day more urgent. The heart and soul of Ireland are weary of conflict, she is profoundly anxious for peace, she wishes to begin a new era of reconstruction, of the building up of the national life on a foundation suited to her temperament and her economic condition. But Ireland, if she wants peace, wants peace with honour. She wants a peace based on a constitution which shall be of such a kind as to enable her to develop her own national life in accordance with the ideals of her people. It is important to realise that this is an ideal to which the Unionists of the three southern provinces are hardly less devoted than the Sinn Féin party.

Unionists want reasonable safeguards and providing the measure of Home Rule is sufficiently generous in its financial provisions, they will not only be prepared to assent to it, but will throw in the weight of their administrative experience, their education and their political and social influence to make it a success. What, he says, does Ireland need? and answers his question as follows:—

I suggest that what Ireland wants is a form of responsible self-government of the Dominion type. Various proposals have from time to time been put forward, O'Connell's Repeal of the Union, Butt's Home Rule, and in later days Devolution, sometimes on broader and sometimes on narrower lines. To-day for Unionists, Nationalists, and moderate and thinking men of all parties self-government on Dominion lines may most emphatically be declared to "hold the field." Ireland cannot reasonably be expected to accept a constitution less ample than that which the self-governing Dominions possess. This involves an Executive Government appointed by a Governor representing the Crown, responsible to the Parliament which elects them, and it also involves as an essential part of the settlement complete reconstruction of the fiscal system of Ireland, including control of the customs and excise, and of the imposition, collection and administration under the authority of the Irish House of Commons of the taxation of the country.

Although at the time it was passed Nationalist leaders regarded the Home Rule Act as the greatest concession that could be obtained in practical politics towards self-government, it was admittedly

but an instalment. In those days Ireland was willing to accept that, but the spirit of the country has now changed. Ireland has had time to examine the Act, and both Unionists and Sinn Feiners have found it wanting.

Moreover, the soberising influence of the rebellion and its results have taught Irishmen that their aim should be not to snatch at a temporary makeshift which would form "a jumping-off ground" for future agitation for further demands, but a permanent settlement which would give peace to their country and form a solid basis for a united and whole-hearted regenerative movement in Ireland. Finally, a clearer conception what is essential for the future of Ireland has convinced every thinking man in Ireland that the existing Home Rule Act does not in itself afford a solution of the problem. The Government of Ireland Act, 1914, can only be regarded as satisfactory in so far as it is "on the Statute Book," and for this reason a useful foundation upon which a more satisfactory scheme may be built up by large amendments on the existing Act.

Mr. O'Connell then puts forward a scheme which he thinks will meet the case. It is based on the Home Rule Act, but differs from it in some important matters. The Senate should consist of 120 members instead of 40, in his opinion. Great Britain should have no power to legislate for, or to raise taxes in, Ireland; there should be no Irish members at Westminster. Powers granted to the Irish Parliament should be as nearly as possible similar to those conferred on the Union of South Africa.

There are other provisions which it may be desirable to insert so as to meet the possibly groundless, but none the less strongly felt, apprehensions of Ulster. As already stated, there are almost no safeguards which Ulster could demand as a condition for joining in the Constitution of a United Ireland which would not be conceded; just as there is nothing which Ulster could offer which the rest of Ireland would accept to leave Ulster out. These safeguards are of several kinds, partly legislative and partly administrative.

It is to safeguard Ulster that he suggests the increasing of the number of Senators, 50 of whom he would give to Ulster, 30 to Leinster, 25 to Munster, and 15 to Connaught. He would give the Senate power to postpone the operation of any bill for twelve months, and the operation of any measure for another year. He advocates, too, that Ulster should have the further protection of a right of appeal

against any bill, to the King-in-Council. In addition, to avoid the possibility of any taxation which would bear more heavily on the industries of Ulster than on the rest of Ireland, a clause in the constitution should definitely state that this must not be imposed. Also, Ulster should have a right of appeal against any tax to a board of, say, five impartial commissioners, who ought to be authorities on finance and experienced in the problems and methods of taxation. Concerning the fear that Ulster would not share the spoils he says:—

Another ground of opposition of Ulster is that she would be excluded from her legitimate proportion of patronage and preferment. It is suggested that there should be established a system by which all appointments in the Civil Service, both in its higher and lower branches, should be regulated by a Board of Patronage so constituted as to secure so far as possible impartiality; that promotion should be regulated by seniority and proved efficiency; that admission to the Civil Service in all its branches should be open to all Irishmen by competitive examination; and that the Poor Law Medical Service, the administrative services under the County, Urban, and Rural District Councils, Corporations, Boards of Guardians, and all other similar public bodies should be formed into an Irish Civil Service, admissions to which should be by competitive examination and promotion in which should be regulated on lines similar to those of the Civil Service. This would safeguard the interests of Ulster and would give her sons a wider field of service and promotion than if Ulster and not Ireland were their oyster which they with their energy, enterprise, and ability might prise open.

He has no fear that Ireland, if she once had Home Rule, would attempt to interfere in the foreign policy of Great Britain, or would make trouble between the Dominions and the mother country, and generally prove a thorn in the side of the homeland. There is plenty to do in Ireland, he says,

Her housing system must be improved, her system of primary education remodelled, her technical education set going on lines suitable to her conditions, her arterial drainage system extended, her temperance legislation revised, her railways nationalised, her harbours improved and deepened, her entire system of national expenditure reconstructed in her own Legislature. These are only a few of the many problems which an Irish Legislature will have to solve in accordance with Irish ideals. They will absorb all the attention of an Irish Parliament to the exclusion of any interest not directly concerned with "the order, peace, and good government of Ireland."



KERENSKY RIDES THE WHIRLWIND.

"No man who has watched Russia in the perilous days of her transition can question the fact that much of the future of the nation lies in the hollow of Kerensky's hand. Up to him was placed squarely the task of instilling into millions of simple, honest, illiterate and childlike people the message of democracy. No other man in the country could attempt it with any hope of success.

"But one thing is certain. So long as Kerensky lives, so long will reason rule. The man who was the Cement of the Revolution will remain the Rock of Reconstruction."

Since these lines were written by Mr. Isaac Marcossan, in his brilliant little book, *The Rebirth of Russia* (John Lane, 3/6 net), Alexander Kerensky has become Prime Minister of all the Russias, and still retains his post as Minister of War.

This amazing young Jew, still in the early thirties, holds in his hands undreamed-of power. He has gone along the Russian front like a flame, inspiring his men to action, and on his success or failure depend the length of the war—and—the future of Russia.

"Every effort he makes is a sap at his vitality," says Mr. Marcossan. "He fairly drains the wellsprings of his life. But more impressive than his speech is the appearance of the man. His face is white almost to ghastliness; his cheeks are gaunt; his eyes are deep, black, lustrous; he looks like one who has suffered and borne great burdens. He incarnates the stuff of which martyrs are made.

"He displayed an amazing knowledge of affairs, and I was not surprised to find that his two admirations were Lloyd George and Lincoln. Consciously he has made the lives of these two great leaders the models for his own. Unconsciously he has become, so far as his public career is concerned, the prototype of the first."

"A week before the first shot was fired that made a bonfire of the old Russian sys-

tem, Alexander Kerensky was scarcely known outside the circles of the Labour Party in Petrograd," adds Mr. Marcossan. "When the tumult and the shouting had ceased his name was on every tongue, and before a month had passed it was part of Russia's prayers. History records no rise so swift, or so sensational. This man's achievement makes him the one distinct and outstanding personality of the whole crowded epoch.

"Here was a poor and practically obscure young man—he was barely 35 when he came into his great prominence. Kerensky was born in Simbirsk, where his father was Principal of the local High School. He received his first instruction at Tashkent, where he completed the High School course, after which he studied law at the University of Petrograd. He could not afford to embark at once upon the uncertain sea of a new legal practice, so he became assistant to a Commissioner for Oaths, and subsequently one of these officials himself.

"While at school Kerensky was known for his ready speech and fervid oratory, and he held forth at the slightest provocation. When he finally took up his law practice in Petrograd he immediately allied himself with the Labour Party, and at once made himself mildly prominent.

"In his practice he specialised in political cases with such impassioned force and with such fearless condemnation of reactionary methods that he narrowly escaped prosecution himself. Despite his reputation for more or less irresponsible declamation, he showed real strength of character, and when this quality was put to the test at the supreme crisis of his life it stood revealed as pure gold. His attitude in the fourth Duma, to which he was elected from the Government at Saratoff, heightened the impression that perhaps this young spread-eagle orator, who had a speech for every occasion, was something of a man after all. Such was the brief and unadorned approach to that great hour when Kerensky was to

stand disclosed as the real Republic Maker."

First he was Minister of Justice. "The crowd in the ante-room indicated that I was at a tribune of the people, because the throng that filled nearly all the available space represented the democracy of the hour. Generals emblazoned with orders

rubbed shoulders with unwashed privates. You saw merchant and washerwoman, priest and atheist, uplifter and radical, all part of the procession that had come to the cabinet of the Father Confessor."

Such is the man who has now to ride the Russian whirlwind and direct the storm of liberty-drunken Petrograd.

THE INCOMPLETE M.P.

He was an M.P., had a well-furnished brain pan, good intentions, business capacity, plenty of money, and became President of the Board of Trade.

He could tell you all the millions of British imports and exports, and was supposed to have some control over those things which come and go in ships, and yet for himself he was not able to secure that most heavenly import—a wife!

How and why he failed is told in *The Great Gift*, by Sidney Paternoster (John Lane, 6/-)—a quite charming and original story with a note of distinction.

The M.P.'s name was Hugh Standish, and in the moment of victory his broodings were on such notes as these:—

"Now in the hour of his triumph he was alone. How could he explain the fact that always before in the hour of victory he had been alone? That from the earliest day—when as a small boy he had been awakened upon the rag bed in the corner of the room by the raised voice of his mother as she quarrelled with his father; in fact, down to the day when he accepted office in His Majesty's Government—he had known no sympathetic hand, heard no sympathetic voice?

"Not for him had been the word of cheer or the hand grasp of sympathetic comradeship. Never a friend had listened to his aspirations and bidden him God-speed. Friend, comrade, lover—neither of them had he known. Acquaintances, allies, associates he had found in plenty, but not one of them had ever been the recipient of a confidence from him any more than he had been the recipient of a confidence from any one of them.

"He declared to himself that he was not built that way, that he desired no man's confidence any more than he would be guilty of the folly of taking any man into his confidence, or the still greater folly of making a woman the sharer of his thoughts.

"He began to wonder whether the success he had won was so very great a thing

after all. He knew the gift to be that whose existence he had denied. The great gift was love. Love of Rachael for her children, of a man for a woman, of David for Jonathan. A gift that brought with it suffering as much as it brought joy, that brought with it the greater joy of taking pleasure in the joys of others, even as it condemned the recipient to suffer other people's sorrows. Perhaps, he thought, if he had only known, he might have sought the gift earlier. Now it was too late. He was forty-six.

"He smiled at the thought of becoming sentimental at forty-six, and awoke from the lost reverie. The ashes in the grate were cold. He went to the window and drew the curtains, and to his surprise the blue light of the London dawn was already pierced with the yellow flush of day. The sparrows were twittering in the trees and on the roofs. A couple of policemen were talking at one corner of the square. A cab drove by, the bells jingling cheerily in the crisp air. Two people were in the cab, and from the glimpse Standish caught of their flushed faces he saw that they were both young. Somewhere a clock struck four. Standish shrugged his shoulders, half whimsically, half regretfully.

"They are finding what I, apparently, have lost," he murmured.

Then Olive came into his life.

"There was in those days a period to all his ideas; the one day of his imagination was when he should share all his innermost thoughts with another, with the girl who was beginning to seem to him to fathom them intuitively. But that day was not yet, and the more he looked forward to it the more he dreaded putting the matter to the touch. Suppose that he should fail at the prize by grasping at it too suddenly. He brought to the enterprise the same pertinacity that had marked his commercial career. That had been won by never moving until the right moment, until success was certain. He had obtained a position of advantage; of that

he was comfortably assured, and he had no intention of losing that position by any ill-considered action. A rejected proposal would leave him hopelessly stranded, and he could not flatter himself that Olive would accept.

"The intimacy which had grown up between them revealed to him the fact that the twenty-six years' difference in their ages was a very real barrier. . . She did not treat him as she treated those of her own age of either sex. She met him eagerly, but she deferred to his opinion.

Standish made his fortune out of ships. He must have had a large holding in some of those companies of which Mr. Bonar Law has lately told us! But the beginning of his fortune came out of book shops and the money so made gave him the great chance of his life when the shipping firm in which he was engaged wanted some more capital.

"What we want is more capital, Standish, if we are to take full advantage of our opportunities," his chief had said. "Our business is increasing at too fast a rate. . . . We ought to have a hundred thousand, for perfect safety; fifty thousand would make me feel happy; we could manage perhaps with twenty-five."

It was Standish, who found the twenty-five thousand, to his chief's great surprise.

"The same week that you gave me a stool in the office I opened a little shop with my savings. . . . Though I could not devote very much time to the business, it paid from the first, and—did you ever hear of Good and Smart, the booksellers?"

"The company which was floated a week or two ago with a capital of a hundred thousand, and was over-subscribed?" asked Orme.

Standish smiled.

"I have just told you how the firm of Good and Smart was founded. . . . 'Good and Smart' struck me as a happy combination for the name over the shop door, and it

fulfilled my anticipations; for a week or two ago I sold the goodwill and stock-in-trade of the business, plus the leases of the dozen shops where it was carried on, for twenty-five thousand pounds in cash and twenty-five thousands pounds in shares."

Thus Standish became a partner in the great shipping firm, won his way to the House of Commons, and so to the Front Bench as President of the Board of Trade.

Then like other prodigals he came to himself and found himself alone with his money. Olive's heart was elsewhere.

"There was no one to blame but himself for singeing his wings, and perhaps the experience if painful had been good for him. Good, if it gave him sympathy for other winged things fluttering round any kind of candle; good, if it had opened to him a new point of view towards his fellow creatures. One thing he had learned certainly, that youth calls to youth irresistibly—if youth is honest with itself. Another truth, greater still—that love is an eternal sacrifice."

Then at the wedding—which should have been his own:

"How he longed to be of their company! But here again youth would needs be served—to youth life was a glorious adventure, love its prerogative, and even death could come robed in splendour. He was no longer of the elect. He was passed by. He had all things, except one, that youth hopes and strives for, and they were bitter apples in his mouth.

"There was no lack of work ready to his hand to distract his mind—work which would need all his energy, all his attention. Once he would have gone to it with exultation. Now if he viewed it with grim determination to put his heart and soul into it, his personal attitude was entirely different. He no longer thought of the results as affecting himself. He had learned to think of others, and that, though he knew it not, was recompense."

OTHER RECENT BOOKS.

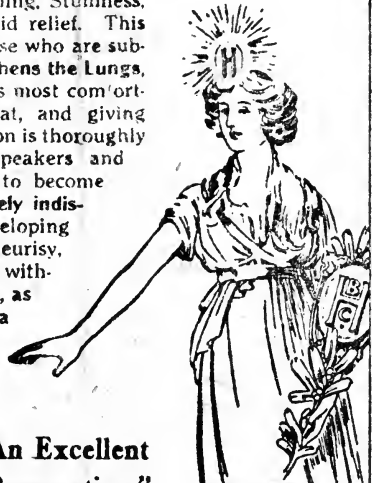
Many will remember Miss Alice Henry who was for some time on the staff of *The Argus* in Melbourne, and was noted as an exponent of the ideas of the future of women—as it was a dozen years ago. She went to America, where she took a prominent part in launching the woman move-

ment in Chicago. She has now published *The Trade Union Woman*, price, 1 dollar 50 cents (6/-). She is peculiarly fitted to write on the subject having been chosen as editor of *Life and Labour*, a very well-conducted monthly journal of the movement. In Chicago she became associated

HEARNE'S BRONCHITIS — CURE —

IS THE FINEST REMEDY IN THE WORLD FOR
COUGHS, CROUP AND COLDS.

THOSE who have had occasion to take **Hearne's Bronchitis Cure** are astonished at its **Wonderful Healing Power**. Sufferers from Bronchitis, Cough, Croup, Pain or Soreness in the Chest, Hoarseness, Difficulty of Breathing, Stiffness, Asthma, experience delightful and rapid relief. This medicine is particularly valuable to those who are subject to Colds on the Chest, as it **Strengthens the Lungs**, and renders them less susceptible. It is most comforting in allaying Irritation in the Throat, and giving Strength to the Voice, and for this reason is thoroughly appreciated by Clergymen, Public Speakers and Singers. It does not allow a Cough to become Chronic, and in this respect is **absolutely indispensable** in preventing a cold from developing into Bronchitis, Asthma, Pneumonia, Pleurisy, or Consumption. No house should be without a bottle of this **Wonderful Remedy**, as taken at the first indication of a Cold, a dose or two is generally sufficient. A Cold should always be "nipped in the bud," or serious illness may follow.



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C. KINGSLEY SMITH.

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Your Baby

can only cry when he is in pain, but he cannot tell you what is the trouble, yet you would give anything to know what to do, how and when to do it, for every Mother is passionately desirous of learning everything about her baby.

Everything mother needs to know about Baby will be found in the pages of the New Revised Glaxo Baby Book—

The best information about Baby, the best advice and most useful hints that a highly qualified doctor and nurse of great practical experience can give—

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"BUILDS BONNIE BABIES"

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with Miss Stella Miles Franklin, who came from Penrith, near Sydney, and was well known as the author of *My Brilliant Career*, a wonderful piece of writing by a girl of seventeen, of which five editions were rapidly published by William Blackwood and Sons. These two worked together, ably assisted by Mrs. Raymond Robins, wife of the well-known business man and evangelist of Chicago, who visited Australia four years ago. His sister is the English writer, Elizabeth Robins, now one of the best-known among the suffragettes of London, and the brilliant actress who achieved fame as Hedda Gabler and other Ibsen characters.

The organisation thus conducted carried out some marvellous strikes and won recognition for the thousands of poor foreigners whose cheap labour was the cause of Chicago's wealth. The coming of the war put an end to the great activity of the women's trade unions, and, while Miss Franklin went to England to do war nursing, and has since gone to the fighting line in Macedonia, Miss Henry resigned her office, and went round America lecturing with great success. It is strange that the mighty United States has happened to procure its chief workers from the comparatively new country on the fringe of Australia.

This book is deeply interesting to all those who care to learn how the labour movement has taken hold of America, and it gives a clear and explicit account of the beginnings of this great movement. In her last letter, received on August 15 last, from Geneva, Wisconsin, Miss Henry mentions that she was giving a course of eight lectures to girls for the Y.W.C.A. Conference on "Industrial Problems," with more work to follow for the same body. The book will be read both by the workers and that increasing number of the wealthier class who are beginning to see that the reorganisation of the industrial world is bound to come in the near future.

The ease with which the late Rupert Brooke sprang into fame as a poet (his book of poems has now reached its twentieth edition) shows how the war has opened some men's minds. Yet he is outdone by Mr. John Oxenham, whose little books of

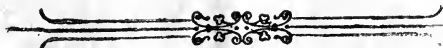
verse, though hardly to be called poetry, have run into one hundred thousand copies.

Australia will be soon reading the poems of a young man who died at the age of twenty, from an accident to an aeroplane, before ever he saw the enemy. Mr. Geoffrey Wall was educated at Wesley College, and spent one year at the Melbourne University. Then he went home and entered the Royal Flying Corps, gaining his "wings" so lately as June, 1917. He was a youth of great ability, and had frequently won school prizes for poems, and wrote a good deal of quite exceptional verse. His father has decided to print his poems, and Mr. L. A. Adamson, head master of Wesley College, contributes an account of the author. It is curious to note in his verse how deeply aeroplaning had become a fixed idea with him. There is one poem addressed to "Wilbur Wright," and constantly one finds a verse which reads something like a prophecy. Take this one:—

Of the youngest and swiftest science, the
 straining, cambered plane,
The thrust of the great propellers, the Mind
 that holds them tame;
The swooping, dipping volplane, the planes
 that warp and bend—
The reeling, wheeling landscape—the crash,
 and then . . . the End.

The book is to be published at once, cloth-bound with gold letters, at 2/6, and those who wish to get a copy had better do so quickly. What with the strikes of workmen and the enormous rise in paper, there will not be a large sale unless indeed the Australian public shows it is just as much alive to pick up good poetry as is the old country.

Another booklet of poems is published by Miss Ruth Betts, whose name will be remembered at the foot of various verses in *The Australasian*. Nearly everything she writes about is coloured by thoughts of the war, but this does not prevent her verse ringing true. In Kew, Melbourne, her late father was minister of the Congregational Church, and from him the girl learnt to love poetry by constant reading of it. Unless we are much mistaken her voice will be heard again unless her work as a chemist prevents her devoting time to cultivating her decided gift still further.



FINANCIAL AND BUSINESS QUARTER.

During the week ended July 31, over ten million dollars worth of gold was exported from the United States.

A freight of £14 per ton for the carriage of freight from Leith to Stavanger was recently paid to a neutral steamer.

Over two-thirds of the Siamese seaborne trade is transacted with the British Empire, but before the war Germany had the lead in shipping.

When the Government of Siam declared war against Germany recently, there were nine German steamers of a total of 19,252 tons register in Siamese ports.

For the year ended June 30 last, exports from Philippines increased 10 million dollars over the previous 12 months, whilst imports expanded by six million dollars.

The Dutch *Handelsblad* states that important negotiations have taken place recently between German and Dutch financial circles with a view to finding means of exchange.

Shipping journals convey the information that more than 20 Norwegian ships have been lost mysteriously, and it is supposed that all have been victims of bombs placed in the bunkers.

A return of the Imperial Bank of Germany dated June 23 indicated that the German gold holdings had decreased by over 3 $\frac{3}{4}$ millions as compared with the quantity on hand twelve months earlier.

The *Shipping World* is responsible for the statement that Japan proposes to make a contribution of 360,000 yen (about £36,000) each to Great Britain, France, Russia, Italy and Belgium, and 60,000 yen to Roumania and Serbia.

About 2500 bales of cotton goods were sold in U.S.A. during July last for ship-

ment to China, the sales being the largest for some time. During the week ended July 31, 600,000 yards of standard sheetings were sold to Chinese buyers, and two sales of more than 500,000 yards of sheetings were made for shipment to Australia.

A new Anglo-Scandinavian Bank—Hannovig's Bank Ltd.—has just been registered at Somerset House as a private company with a nominal capital of £1,000,000 in £5 shares. The objects are to carry on the business of a bank with head office in London, and branches in England, Scandinavia or elsewhere.

The Government of U.S.A. has just passed a new Federal law that came into effect on July 26, providing for the compulsory accident insurance of sailors navigating in the war zone. The Act provides that all masters, officers and crews must be covered against the risks of war, including detention, the amount to be covered being one year's wages of each man. In the case of detention, full wages have to be paid during the period of detention. The rate quoted in the States for the risk on a voyage from the U.S.A. to the United Kingdom or to France, is 15/- per cent.

Under the new regulations, the dependants of masters, officers and seamen, who are killed through war risk, will receive one-third the pre-war rate of wages, with 3/- a day victualling allowance in the case of officers, and 1/6 in the case of seamen. That is to say, if an officer had £10 a month in pre-war times, his pay would be reckoned as the equivalent of £174 a year, and his widow will receive £58 a year, plus an annual allowance of £13 for one child, £23/16/8 for two children, £32 10/- for three children, and £39 for four children. In the case of injury or disablement resulting in total incapacity, two-thirds pay is to be granted.

There were 760,765 woollen and worsted spindles employed on American war orders on August 1 in U.S.A., as against 581,287 on July 2, but 8.5 per cent. of the woollen and 22.3 per cent. of all the worsted spindles were idle on August 1, as against

**IT'S NOURISHMENT YOUR NERVES NEED—NOT
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HEAN'S TONIC NERVE NUTS

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**HEADACHES
BRAIN FAG
HYSTERIA**

**BACKACHE
ANAEMIA
INSOMNIA**

**NEURALGIA
DYSPEPSIA
LASSITUDE
PALPITATION
And Other Neurasthenic Conditions**



MR. E. DE FORREST, the card-manipulator, who recently appeared at the Tivoli Theatre, is also a lightning memoriser. One of his feats is to instantly repeat 200 words read over to him at random. Also, after a hurried glance through a pack of cards, he correctly calls out the exact order in which the cards have been stacked. People who have to exercise their memories will be interested in Mr. De Forrest's experience: "The humid atmosphere of Sydney had a most enervating effect on me after having come from an American winter direct into an Australian summer. At the best of times I am what my medical advisers term of a nervous temperament. Anyhow, it has cost me quite a heap of money at one time or another for nerve tonics. When I had a down-and-out sort of feeling very bad a few weeks ago, a friend handed me a box of HEAN'S TONIC NERVE NUTS, and told me to get busy on them. I am now writing to ask you to send half-a-dozen boxes along. I cannot afford to be without them. Memory feats are brain faggers, especially when one feels off-color. Your Tonic Nerve Nuts prevent the off-color feeling."

The success of HEAN'S TONIC NERVE NUTS in combating threatened nervous breakdown, overcoming Headaches, Backache, Neuralgia, Insomnia, Lassitude, Anaemia, Nervous Dyspepsia, and the hundred and one other distressing symptoms of Neurasthenia has established them as an invaluable home remedy. They do not contain any trace of harmful drugs or poisons. They are a scientific combination of purest ingredients, compounded for the purpose of purifying and enriching the blood, and nourishing the nervous system. Taken after meals they provide the elements of nerve force which are all too often lacking in our modern dietary, in which dishes are prepared more to please the eye and tickle the palate than with consideration to their nutritive value. HEAN'S TONIC NERVE NUTS are compounded by a dispensing chemist of 25 years' experience, and in accordance with prescriptions of eminent Nerve Specialists. These facts explain why they have proven so successful in the treatment of nervous ailments. How effectively they do their work is best told by THOSE WHO HAVE USED THEM.

**MR. JOHN DE CHENE, ENGINEER, OF SOUTH
RICHMOND, VIC.:**

"My nerves were in a shocking state, and I could not sleep, though I had tried all sorts of cures. After taking two bottles of HEAN'S TONIC NERVE NUTS the improvement is so remarkable that I must write and tell you how delighted I am."

MISS L. COLLINS, COOGEE:

"Some time ago, owing to overwork, I became a nervous wreck. Insomnia supervened, and, in spite of the best medical attention, I was unable to sleep or recover my strength. I had tried a famous high-priced German preparation, but it failed to effect a cure. Fortunately for me, a friend presented me with a phial of your Nerve Nuts, and, as nothing could make me worse, I took them. I was astonished to discover that I felt somewhat better. My ever-present fear began to leave me, and I had intervals during which existence became bearable. And then I slept. That was the beginning of my recovery. I took more Nerve Nuts, and after my second bottle I can proudly say that I am completely restored to health, and fear nothing on earth."

CORPORAL F. J. NOLAN, OF MANLY:

"I must compliment you on the efficacy of HEAN'S TONIC NERVE NUTS for insomnia. For weeks after my return to Sydney from Gallipoli I was unable to get to sleep till all hours. It was invariably after two in the morning before I could doze off, and even then the rest was broken. When told that HEAN'S TONIC NERVE NUTS would fix me up I laughed at the idea, for I had taken all sorts of nerve tonics and sedatives. After three weeks I am pleased to be able to say that I feel quite a different man. My nerves have steadied down wonderfully. I eat and sleep well, and am feeling quite fit again. You may use this letter as you think fit."

Besides being very efficacious, HEAN'S TONIC NERVE NUTS are also economical; small boxes cost 2/- each, or six boxes for 11/3; large boxes (containing double quantity), are 3/- each, or six for 17/3. If not obtainable from your local medicine dealer, do not be put off with any inferior substitute, but send direct to G. W. HEAN, Manufacturing Chemist, 178 Castlereagh street, Sydney.

only 6.8 per cent. of the former and 19.1 per cent. of the latter on July 2. The percentage of carpet and rug looms idle—27—was the largest since March 1, 1915.

During the first three years of the war, 815 companies, with a total authorised stock of 1,016,406,000 dollars were organised in the United States for the development of the oil and gas resources. In the last two years great impetus has been given to the oil business, especially since the United States entered the war. The requirements of the belligerents for petroleum and gasoline has played a part, as well as the increased number of automobiles.

It has been officially estimated that 40 per cent. of the motor cars in America are owned and used by farmers. There are three times as many automobiles in Iowa, Nebraska and California, in proportion to population, as in New York State, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, or Illinois. Increase in car sales has been several times larger in agricultural States during recent years than in manufacturing States.

Greater passenger-mile service is rendered by the passenger automobiles in the United States than by the entire railroad or street railway systems of the country. The 3,700,000 passenger cars, averaging 5000 miles a year, and three persons each, give a total of 55,500,000,000 passenger miles. At a rate of two cents per mile, this is worth 1,110,000,000 dollars a year.

Approximately 1,000,000 wage earners are employed in the motor vehicle industry. The majority are skilled mechanics. The automobile factories and their organisations of mechanics are an invaluable asset to the nation in military activity. They can be used for production of aeroplane engines, parts and complete machines, and for manufacture of ammunition. The 350,000 motor trucks in use in the United States, averaging fifty miles a day, with a load of only two tons for half this distance, performs 5,250,000,000 ton-miles service yearly. At an average cost of 20 cents per ton mile for haulage by road in city and country by horse-drawn and motor vehicle, this service is worth more than 1,000,000,000 dollars.

As showing the profits made by neutral shipowners, "Fairplay" instances one who purchased a steamer at the end of 1915 for about £70,000, traded with her until the beginning of this year, and then, after having made profit of over £100,000, disposed of her for £280,000, so that, in a little over fourteen months, on an investment of £70,000 the owner made a profit of over £300,000!

From October 1 the South African customs duties on coffee and paraffin were to revert to the 1914 basis, and tea duties were to be reduced. Referring to the diamond export duty, the Minister of Finance stated in the House of Assembly that the tax would be imposed upon the value of diamonds declared in South Africa. If diamonds realised a larger amount, the duty would be upon the increased value, and *vice versa*.

At the outbreak of the war there were about 650,000 tons gross of German shipping in U.S.A. ports. Of this, 14 vessels have been taken over by the U.S.A. Navy Department, and the balance, 87, of over 500,000 tons, have been seized by the U.S.A. Shipping Board, which has been authorised to "repair, equip and man the vessels to operate, lease or charter the same in any service in the United States, or in any commerce, foreign or otherwise; and to do and perform any and all things that may be necessary to accomplish the purposes of the joint resolutions under which the President acted."

The value of cotton manufactures exported from the United States in the three years of war is one-half as much as in the twenty years before the war. The value of cotton cloths alone exported in the fiscal year 1917 is nearly three times as much, knit goods seven times as much, and cotton yarn eight times as much as in the fiscal year 1914. The quantity of cotton cloths exported in the fiscal year 1917 exceeds that of any earlier year except the fiscal year 1906, when the demand of China at the close of the Russo-Japanese war was exceptionally heavy. The increase in value is not merely due to higher prices. Of cotton cloths alone, the exports for 1917 are about 700,000,000 yards, against 397,000,000 in 1915.

ESPERANTO NOTES.

Alderman T. Grindle, J.P.. Member of the Eccles Education Committee, writes as follows :—

"Being desirous of becoming better acquainted with usefulness, or otherwise, of Esperanto as one of the subjects of instruction, I paid a visit to the Green Lane School, and was conducted by Mr. Sander-son, the headmaster, to Miss Hogg's class. Here I became unexpectedly the pupil and the class became my instructor. By means of question and answer, dealt with respec-tively by the teacher and the class, I learned many reasons for the adoption of a common language :—

"*First.* — International conferences would become not only more frequent but more effective.

"*Second.*—National disputes would be less likely to arise, because with a common language every nation would be able to understand the opinions of every other nation.

"*Third.*—Communications of every kind between nations would greatly increase, hence the possibilities of war would be re-duced to a minimum.

"I was at a considerable disadvantage through not being an Esperantist myself ; yet I was soon fully convinced of the effi-ciency of the class by the readiness with which the pupils answered in Esperanto the questions which the teacher put. As an additional test, I related in English to the whole class a humorous anecdote, after having made the request that the best Es-perantist scholar be sent out of the room to a somewhat distant part of the building. After my narration this boy was brought back : of course, he knew nothing about the story. I then requested that three other boys should each tell the story in Esperanto to this boy. Then I asked him to tell the story in English to me and to the class. There could not possibly have been any special preparation ; and yet the experiment perfectly satisfied me of the great success of the Green Lane Esperanto teaching.

"To have achieved equal efficiency in French, to say nothing of the dead lan-guages, Greek and Latin, would have taken at least twenty times as much training and preparation. Besides all this, Es-peranto equally with any other language provides the means of enabling a learner to understand the grammar of his own lan-

guage ; this seems to be increasingly neces-sary in present times when an increasing number of persons, even public men, ap-pear to have little or no knowledge of grammar.

"What perhaps struck me most of all, on maturer consideration, was the power of this language as a brain exercise ; for I found that, to an extent beyond all other languages, and not merely because it is a new language, it compels those who use it to build up their own words. In other lan-guages, in English, for instance, one seeks for the word, already in use, which will most nearly express our meaning ; here the user takes a root, or fundamental word, and adds the requisite suffix or prefix, or both, until he obtains the exact word he requires. The facility with which these scholars use their new vocabulary was truly amazing ; their facial expressions mirrored forth their keenness and delight in the whole opera-tion. The reader may say that this has simply been an exhibition performance. My answer to that, and I think it is a suffi-cient one, is, that I have been a day-school teacher in early years, and I know how to apply a test to get to the true facts, if such had been the case. But it was all the result of good sound teaching in a sub-ject which the pupils realised was of such great importance that they had actually become enthusiastic in their studies."

The *San Francisco Bulletin* contains an interesting paragraph in a recent issue re-garding the tour of Ernest Archdeacon, an economist of Paris, France, who is making an industrial survey of the United States. In closing an interview, Mr. Archdeacon states :—

There are two things which Americans should do in order to expand her foreign trade. The first is to adopt the metric system, and the second is to make Esper-anto the universal language. The "Star," Redwood City, California, has published three articles contributed by Mr. B. E. Myers, on Esperanto, in order that the people of Redwood may learn "how essen-tial it is to be able to address Hindoo, Greek, Turk, Frenchman, German, Italian in a tongue equally understandable by all, irrespective of race, colour or creed." In the first article the need of a "pass" lan-guage is pointed out ; in the second is shown the simplicity of Esperanto, and its value in dealing with all countries of the globe ; while the third of the series an-swers the question, "What shall it profit the individuals?"

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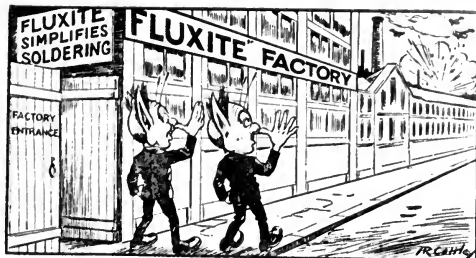
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